



University
of Glasgow

Abuznaid, Samir Ahmad Othman (1990) Aspects of management attitudes, beliefs, and business culture on the West Bank. PhD thesis

<http://theses.gla.ac.uk/4977/>

Copyright and moral rights for this thesis are retained by the author

A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge

This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the Author

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the Author

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

**ASPECTS OF MANAGEMENT ATTITUDES, BELIEFS,
AND BUSINESS CULTURE ON THE WEST BANK**

by

**Samir Ahmad Othman Abuznaid
BSc., MBA (USA)**

**A Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

to

**The Department of Management Studies
Glasgow Business School
University of Glasgow
Glasgow, Scotland
United Kingdom**

May 1990

DEDICATION

To all those who are working hard to bring about a comprehensive, long-lasting and just peace to occupied Palestine where cries of oppression and injustice have been heard for many years.

To them, and to all peace lovers and makers throughout the world, I dedicate this thesis.

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this study has been submitted in support of an application for any other degree or qualification to this or any other university or other institution of learning.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Dedication	i
Declaration	ii
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	xiv
List of Figures and Maps	xviii
Acknowledgements	xx
Abstract	xxiii
CHAPTER 1 Introduction and Overview	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	3
1.3 Objectives of the Study	4
1.4 Research Methods	7
1.5 Significance of the Study	8
1.6 Limitations of the Study	8
1.7 Layout of the Study	11
CHAPTER 2 Management: An Overview	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Management: Background	17
2.3 Meaning of Management: Its Importance	22
2.4 Nature of Management	23
2.5 Functions of Management	23
2.5.1 Planning	24
2.5.1.1 Why Plan?	24
2.5.2 Organising	25
2.5.3 Staffing	25
2.5.4 Communication	27
2.5.5 Decision Making	28
2.5.6 Controlling	30
2.5.7 Leading	31
2.5.7.1 What is Leadership?	32
2.5.7.2 Differences Between Leaders and Non Leaders	35
2.5.7.3 Theories of Leadership	36

		Page
	2.5.8 Motivation	44
2.6	Summary	45
CHAPTER 3	Cross Cultural Studies in Management	51
3.1	What is Meant by Cross-Cultural Management?	51
3.2	Cross Cultural Comparisons	56
3.3	Summary	68
CHAPTER 4	Arab Management: An Overview	74
4.1	Introduction	74
4.2	Who is an Arab?	74
	4.2.1 Language	75
	4.2.2 Religion	76
	4.2.3 History	77
4.3	Major Studies on Arab Management	78
4.4	Review of Major Studies	79
4.5	Summary	94
CHAPTER 5	The West Bank: Geographical and Historical Background	98
5.1	Introduction	98
5.2	Historical Background	98
	5.2.1 Historical Background: 1895-1967	100
	5.2.2 Israeli Occupation of the West Bank June 1967 - present	104
	5.2.3 The Arab Israeli War: 1973	105
	5.2.4 The Camp David Accord	106
5.3	The Palestinian Population on the West Bank	107
5.4	West Bank Administration	108
5.5	The Palestinian Uprising (Intifada): December 1987	109
5.6	Summary	110
CHAPTER 6	Economic Environment	114
6.1	Introduction	114

		Page
6.2	Agriculture	114
6.3	Industry	116
6.4	Labour and Employment	119
6.5	West Bank Economy During the Intifada: December 1987 - present	122
6.6	Conducting Business During the Intifada	124
6.7	The Tax War	125
6.8	Agriculture Punishment	126
6.9	Summary	127
CHAPTER 7	Religious Beliefs, Practices and Cultural Themes on the West Bank	132
7.1	Introduction	132
7.2	Major Beliefs in the West Bank	132
7.3	Meaning of Islam	135
7.4	Pillars of Islam	136
7.5	Islam and Economic Prosperity	142
7.6	Islam and Management	145
7.7	Main Cultural Themes	152
7.8	Summary	159
CHAPTER 8	Education in the West Bank	165
8.1	Introduction	165
8.2	General Background	165
8.3	General Education in the West Bank	168
8.4	Education: Demographic Characteristics	169
	8.4.1 Male Education	171
	8.4.2 Female Education	173
8.5	Problems and Obstacles Facing General Education	176
8.6	Higher Education in the West Bank	176
8.7	Obstacles Facing Higher Education in the West Bank	180
8.8	Summary	183
CHAPTER 9	Methodology and Research Design	187
9.1	Introduction	187
9.2	Review of Objectives	187
9.3	Research Design	190

		Page
9.4	Research Methods	194
	9.4.1 The Questionnaire	194
	9.4.2 The Instrument	194
	9.4.3 Refining the Instrument	194
	9.4.4 Questionnaire Components	196
	9.4.4.1 Cover Letter	197
	9.4.4.2 Background Information	197
	9.4.4.3 Managers and Their Environment	198
	9.4.4.4 Managers Relationships	198
	9.4.4.5 Managers Attitudes, Beliefs and Culture	198
	9.4.4.6 Managers Needs	198
	9.4.4.7 Managers Satisfaction	199
9.5	The Sample	199
	9.5.1 In the Field	201
	9.5.2 Reasons for Using Personal Interview Method	202
	9.5.3 The Mail Questionnaire	204
	9.5.4 The Telephone Interview	205
9.6	Scopes and Limitations of the Study	207
	9.6.1 Limitations Resulting from the Current Abnormal Situation Prevailing in the Occupied West Bank.	207
	9.6.2 Limitations Resulting from the Research Technique.	210
9.7	How Were These Problems Tackled?	211
9.8	Computation and Data Analysis	211
9.9	Summary	213
CHAPTER 10	Sample Characteristics	216
10.1	Introduction	216
10.2	Managers Characteristics	217
	10.2.1 Managers Age	217
	10.2.2 Place of Birth	218
	10.2.3 Sex	220
	10.2.4 Marital Status	221
	10.2.5 Number of Children	223

	Page
10.2.6 Educational Level	224
10.2.7 Field of Study	227
10.2.8 Managers Training	228
10.2.8.1 Nature of Training Programme	229
10.2.8.2 Length of Training Programme	229
10.2.9 Number of Languages Spoken by Managers	230
10.2.10 Father's Occupation	232
10.2.11 Length of Service (Tenure)	233
10.3 Business Characteristics	234
10.3.1 Kind of Business	234
10.3.2 Size of Business	237
10.3.3 Age of Firms	238
10.3.4 Number of Female Managers Employed	239
10.3.5 Number of Female Workers Employed	239
10.4 Summary	240
CHAPTER 11 Management and the Environment	243
11.1 Introduction	243
11.2 Environmental Pressures	244
11.2.1 Socio-cultural Pressures	245
11.2.1.1 Low Value of Time	248
11.2.1.2 Advertising and Marketing Constraints	250
11.2.1.3 Envy (Evil Eye)	251
11.2.1.4 Lack of Industrial Mentality	252
11.2.2 Business and Community Pressures	254
11.2.2.1 Reputation in the Community	254
11.2.2.2 Social Visits at the Office	255
11.2.2.3 Top Man Syndrome	257
11.2.2.4 Fusion of Business with Social and Personal Life	257
11.2.2.5 Higher Expectation of Success	258
11.2.2.6 Nepotism	258
11.2.2.7 Lack of Respect of Company Rules by Visitors	259

	Page
11.2.3 Military Occupation Pressures	259
11.2.3.1 Occupation Discriminatory Policies	260
11.2.3.2 Marketing Problems	260
11.2.3.3 Taxation	261
11.2.3.4 Low Tourism Level	262
11.2.4 Internal Pressures	263
11.2.4.1 Financial Problems	263
11.2.4.2 Irresponsibility	265
11.2.4.3 Absenteeism	265
11.2.4.4 Lack of Training Programmes	266
11.2.4.5 Employees Conflicts	266
11.3 Extent of Pressure on Both the Private and Public Sector	268
11.4 Managers and Nervousness	268
11.5 Attributes Expected of Managers	271
11.5.1 Attributes Expected of Managers by the Community	271
11.5.1.1 National Duty	271
11.5.1.2 Intermediary Role	273
11.5.1.3 Improving the Scientific, Cultural and Social Status of the Community	274
11.5.1.3.1 The Manager as a Good Citizen	274
11.5.1.3.2 Role of Manager as Community Leader	275
11.5.1.3.2.1 Managers Role Towards his Family	276
11.5.1.3.2.2 Managers Roles Towards Society	276
11.5.1.4 Linking Business with the Community	278
11.5.2 Attributes Expected of Managers by Their Organisations	278
11.5.2.1 Good Management	278
11.5.2.2 Motor of the Organisation	279
11.5.2.3 Decision Maker	279
11.5.2.4 Writing Articles in Local Newspapers and Magazines	279
11.5.3 Attributes Expected by Employees	279

	Page
11.5.3.1 Good Working Conditions	280
11.5.3.2 Good Wages	280
11.5.3.3 Help in Personal Matters of Employees	280
11.5.3.4 Good Training Programmes	281
11.6 Reasons for Managers Success	282
11.6.1 Faithfulness and commitment to work	283
11.6.2 Leading Personality	284
11.6.3 Capability	286
11.6.4 Self Confidence	286
11.7 Summary	287
CHAPTER 12 Decision Making and Interpersonal Style	292
12.1 Introduction	292
12.2 Decision Making	293
12.2.1 Decision Making Scale	294
12.2.2 Decision Making Style	297
12.2.3 Variables Affecting Decision Making Styles	300
12.2.3.1 Managers Age and Decision Making	300
12.2.3.2 Managers Education and Decision Making	301
12.2.3.3 Size of Organisation and Decision Making	303
12.2.4 People Consulted by Managers when Facing Functional Problems	305
12.3 Managers Relationships	307
12.3.1 Managers Way of Obtaining their Present Jobs	308
12.3.2 Mediation (Wasta): Background	311
12.3.3 Managers and Mediation (Go Between)	312
12.3.4 Managers Attitudes Towards Mediation	316
12.3.5 Nepotism (Muhabah)	317
12.3.6 Bribery (Rashawi)	319
12.3.7 Managers Attitudes Towards	

	Page
	Bribes 322
12.3.8	Managers Employee Relationships 323
12.3.9	Subordinates Fear of Managers 325
12.3.10	The Ideal Employee (Al-Amil Al-Mithali) 327
12.3.11	Ideal Employee and Business Sector 329
12.3.12	Managers Affiliation with Professional Bodies: Background 331
12.3.13	Managers Affiliation with Professional Bodies 334
12.3.14	Attendance at Professional Bodies 336
12.4	Summary 337
CHAPTER 13	Managers Attitudes and Change 343
13.1	Introduction 343
13.2	Definition of Attitude and Other Related Concepts 343
13.3	Managers Attitudes Towards Own Jobs 346
13.4	Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes 350
13.4.1	Organisation Size and Managers Job Attitude 350
13.4.2	Business Ownership and Job Attitude 352
13.4.3	Managers Education and Job Attitude 353
13.4.4	Managers Age and Job Attitude 354
13.5	Managers Attitude Towards Time 355
13.5.1	Reasons for Being Late for Work 358
13.6	Managers Attitudes Towards Life Insurance 360
13.6.1	Reasons for Not Carrying Life Insurance Policy 361
13.7	Managers Attitudes Towards Change 365
13.7.1	The Instrument Used for Measurement 366
13.8	Managers Attitudes Towards Socio-cultural Change 366

	Page
13.8.1 Managers Attitudes Towards Women Working as Managers	366
13.8.2 Managers Attitudes Towards Women Working as Employees	371
13.8.3 Managers Attitudes Towards Prevailing Customs and Traditions	372
13.9 Technological Change	373
13.9.1 Managers Attitudes Towards the Increase in Business Automation and Technology	374
13.10 Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes Towards Change	377
13.11 Summary	378
CHAPTER 14 Women Managers Role	383
14.1 Introduction	383
14.2 Women Managers: Background	383
14.2.1 Women Managers Age	384
14.2.2 Place of Birth	385
14.2.3 Marital Status	386
14.2.4 Number of Children	387
14.2.5 Educational Achievement	389
14.2.6 Field of Study	391
14.2.7 Nature of Work	392
14.2.8 Length of Service	392
14.2.9 Training	393
14.2.10 Place of Training	394
14.3. Women Managers Role in the West Bank	395
14.3.1 The Traditional Role of Women According to Islamic Law	395
14.3.1.1 Womens Role as Members of Mankind	395
14.3.1.2 Woman Manager's Role as a Member of her Family	398
14..3.1.3 Woman Manager's Role as a Member of Society	400
14.3.1.3.1 National Duty	400
14.3.1.3.2 Improvement of Cultural and Scientific	

		Page
	Levels of people	403
14.4	Summary	404
CHAPTER 15	Managerial Thinking	407
15.1	Introduction	407
15.2	Managers Attitudes Toward Certain Managerial Functions	407
15.2.1	Discussion of Major Findings on Managers Attitudes	408
15.2.1.1	Attitudes Towards Planning	408
15.2.1.2	Attitudes Towards Organising and Staffing	410
15.2.1.3	Attitudes Towards Communicating	414
15.2.1.4	Attitudes Towards Leading	414
15.2.1.5	Attitudes Towards Motivating	418
15.3	Discussion of Major Findings of Managers Beliefs	419
15.3.1	Managers Relationships (i.e. with employees)	421
15.3.2	Social Beliefs	424
15.3.3	Length of Service (Seniority)	427
15.3.4	Individual and Group Behaviour	427
15.4	Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes and Beliefs	429
15.5	Discriminant Function Analysis: An Introduction	430
15.6	Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes	432
15.7	Variables Affecting Managers Belief	440
15.8	Need Importance and Need Satisfaction	446
15.9	Need Importance	446
15.10	Discussion of Major Findings	449
15.11	Need Satisfaction	452
15.12	Summary	453
CHAPTER 16	Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations and Research Implications	459
16.1	Introduction	459
16.2	Importance of the Study	459
16.3	Methods of Analysis	462
16.4	Conclusions	462
16.4.1	Sample Characteristics	462

	Page
16.4.2 Findings Pertaining to Management and the Environment	466
16.4.3 Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Decision Making and Managers Interpersonal Style	470
16.4.4 Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Managers Attitudes and Change	472
16.4.5 Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Managers Thinking	477
16.4.6 Contributions and Research Implications	480
16.4.7 Future Research and Recommendations	481

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
6.1 Sectoral Distribution of Those Employed in the West Bank	121
6.2 Structural Change in the West Bank Economy	122
8.1 West Bank Population Aged 14 years and over by years of Schooling	169
8.2 West Bank Males aged 14 and over by years of Schooling	172
8.3 West Bank Females aged 14 and over by years of Schooling	174
8.4 Faculties at West Bank Colleges and Universities	178
8.5 Profile of full-time Students at Eight Higher Education Institutions in the West Bank for the year 1985-86	179
8.6 Closure of Palestinian Universities by Israeli Military Occupation	181
10.1 Managers Age	217
10.2 Place of Birth	219
10.3 Sex	220
10.4 Marital Status	223
10.5 Number of Children	223
10.6 Educational Achievement	225
10.7 Field of study	228
10.8 Place of Training Programmes	229
10.9 Nature of Training Course	229
10.10 Length of Training Programme Attended	230
10.11 Number of Languages spoken by Managers	230
10.12 Father's Occupation	233
10.13 Managers Length of Service	233
10.14 Kind of Business	235
10.15 Size of Business	237
10.16 Age of Firms	238
10.17 Number of Female Managers Employed (Supervisors)	239
10.18 Number of Female Workers	240
11.1 Types of Pressures and Their Weights	245

Table	Page
11.2 Environmental Pressurs as Reported by West Bank Managers	246
11.3 Weight of Pressures on both the Private and the Public Sector	268
11.4 Managers and Nervousness	269
11.5 Main Attributes Expected of Managers	272
11.6 Managers Misperception of Employees Wants	282
11.7 Managers Main Reasons for Success	283
11.8 Primary Personality Traits	285
12.3 Frequency and Percentage of West Bank Managers Decision Making Styles	298
12.4 Managers Age and Decision Making Style	301
12.5 Managers Education and Decision Making Style	303
12.6 Organisation Size and Decision Making	304
12.7 Percentage of Managers Responses to the type of people consulted when faced with functional problems	307
12.8 Frequency and Percentage of Managers Responses to the Methods of Obtaining Their Jobs	310
12.9 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the use of Mediation, Nepotism and Bribes in the West Bank	313
12.10 Frequency and Percentage of Managers Responses to the Reasons Behind the use of Mediation	315
12.11 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Attitudes Towards Mediation	316
12.12 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Question of Discussion of Non Business Matters with Subordinates at Work.	324
12.13 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Question of Subordinates Fear	326
12.14 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to What is an Ideal Employee?	328
12.15 Perception of an Ideal Employee by Sectors	330
12.16 Major Unions Operating in the West Bank	332
12.17 Palestinian Womens Organisations in the West Bank	333

Table	Page
12.18 Managers Affiliation with Professional Bodies by Sectors	334
12.19 Percentage Distribution of Managers Attendance at Meetings of their Professional Bodies	337
13.1 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Attitudes Towards their Present Jobs	348
13.2 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Weekly Working Hours	349
13.3 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Use of Abilities	350
13.4 Managers Attitudes by Size of Organisaton	351
13.5 Ownership by Job Attitude	353
13.6 Managers Education by Job Attitude	353
13.7 Managers Age and Job Attitude	354
13.8 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Attitudes Towards Time	357
13.9 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Who Have Been Late for Work in the Past 12 months	358
13.10 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Reasons for Being Late for Work	360
13.11 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to Life Insurance	361
13.12 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Reasons for not Carrying Life Insurance Policies	362
13.13 Comparison of Muna Findings and Present Study as to the Main Reasons for not Carrying Life Insurance Policies	364
13.14 Percentage Distribution of West Bank Managers Attitudes Towards Socio- Cultural and Technological Change	369
13.15 Managers Age and Education by Attitude	378
14.1 Women Managers Age	384
14.2 Women Managers Place of Birth	385
14.3 Marital Status	386
14.4 Number of Children	388

Table	Page
14.5 Educational Achievement	389
14.6 Field of Study	391
14.7 Length of Service	393
14.8 Nature of Training	394
14.9 Place of Training	394
14.10 Attributes Exepcted of Women by Society	400
15.1 Managerial Attitudes	412
15.2 Managerial Beliefs	422
15.3 Main Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes Towards Various Managerial Functions	436
15.4 Managers Attitudes by Managerial Functions	437
15.5 Main Variables Affecting Managers Beliefs About Various Managerial Themes	441
15.6 Managers beliefs by Managerial Themes	444
15.7 Managers Need Importance and Need Satisfaction	448
15.8 Comparison of Findings of Badawy and Present Study with Regard to Arab Managers Need Importance	451
15.9 Managers Need Dissatisfaction Comparisons (Badawy 1980) and Present Study	453

LIST OF FIGURES AND MAPS

Figure	Page
2.1 Relationship of Objectives and the Organisational Hierarchy	21
2.2 Differences Between a Leader and a Non Leader	35
2.3 Continuum of Leadership Behaviour	38
2.4 Contingency Relationship in Bath Goal Leadership	42
2.5 Vroom and Yetton Alternative Decision Making Styles	43
3.1 The Power Distance Dimension	59
3.2 The Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension	60
3.3 The Individualism Collectivism Dimension	62
3.4 The Masculinity Dimension	66
10.1 Managers Education	226
11.1 Types of Pressures	247
11.2 Managers Nervousness	270
12.1 The Power Sharing Scale	294
12.2 Comparison Between Decisional Styles Employed in this Study and those of Previous Researchers	296
12.3 Managers Decision Making Styles	299
12.4 Use of Irregular Practices in Business	321
 Maps	
Palestine: General Map	99
West Bank: General Map	200

BIBLIOGRAPHY

486

APPENDICES:

1. The Interview Schedule (English Version)
2. The Arabic Translation of the Interview Schedule
3. Letter Requesting an Interview with Nablus Post Office Manager
4. Copy of a Secrecy Contract used in Business (Arabic)
5. An English Translation of the Secrecy Contract shown in Appendix 4
6. Research Supervisor's Supportive Letter

CURRICULUM VITAE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"Whoever taught me a single letter, I will be his servant for ever".

(Arabic Proverb)

I would like to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to several of those who provided valuable advice and assistance during all stages of preparation of this thesis. To them all I am grateful.

My appreciation and debt is immensely great to my supervisor, Professor David T.H. Weir, former Chairman of the Department of Management Studies, University of Glasgow, for his unlimited contribution of effort and encouragement. Professor Weir's breadth and depth of knowledge and professional experience proved invaluable throughout this study. I am much indebted to him for taking a personal interest in me and my work, and above all for his constructive guidance, fruitful discussions and unceasing encouragement and effort at directing my work and bringing it to fruition.

My sincere appreciation also extends to Dr. Walid I. Sharif for his encouragement and support especially in the early stages of this study, to Mr. Nael K. Abu Arkoub of Birzeit University, English Department, for his help in the Arabic translation of the questionnaire, to Mr. Najeh Abu Safiyyeh, of the Computer Centre at An-Najah National University, Nablus, and to Mr. Faisal A. Zanoun of the Department of Geography, University of Glasgow, for helping me ensure the accuracy of the programming and statistical analysis for this study. Thanks are also due to all members of the staff of the Computer Centre and the Department of Management Studies, University of Glasgow for their friendliness and

continued co-operation.

My appreciation also goes to the administration of An-Najah National University. Their morale boost and continued encouragement for the pursuit of knowledge will be remembered for a long time.

Here I must acknowledge the British Consulate in East Jerusalem for the financial assistance provided to me through the British Council in East Jerusalem, London and Glasgow for my final year of study. I must emphasise that without their assistance this work would never have been completed. Their assistance and above all their kindness will be remembered forever. I am deeply grateful to them.

In the field, I am most grateful to the 177 top managers and administrators in the West Bank who gave generously, both time and effort, to enable me to materialise this study. To the 71 top managers and administrators who chose to remain anonymous and to those who agreed to their names being mentioned here, I am most grateful.

Mr. Bahjat T. Dwaikat
Mr. Fathallah S. Guneim
Dr. Faris R. Masoud
Mr. Atallah Najjar
Mr. Jack Khazmo
Mr. Ibrahim Al-Dakkak
Mr. Salah F. Natsheh
Mr. Abd-Elraheem J. Tamimi
Mr. Ahmad Arman
Miss Suha G. Tannous
Mr. Husam M. Taweel
Mr. Muhammad I. Milhim
Mr. Hamed S. Awaideh
Mr. Isam M. Shihabi
Mr. Ilayyan J. Dababat
Miss Maha J. Jarrar
Mr. Kamil E. Kamel
Mr. Nihad Abu-Garbiyyeh

Dr. Muhammad Z. Gazaleh
Mr. George B. Rizik
Mr. Muhammad F. Tamimi
Dr. Muhammad Alami
Mr. Abd-Al Jabbar A. Al-Asmar
Mr. Riyadh M. Suluh
Dr. Dmona Shihadah
Miss Alis E. Yakoub
Mr. Garabed A. Mardirossian
Mr. Haj Fathi Q. Fahmawi
Mr. Jihad A. Bassah
Mr. Ez-Eldeen Farrah
Mr. Odeh J. Salah
Mr. Ahmad Abidin
Mr. Abdullah Dabdoub
Mr. Khalid M. Tamimi
Mr. Zahran M. Hassouneh
Mr. Jawdat A. Natsheh

Mr. Hashem Juneidi
Dr. Suleiman M. Matuk
Miss Betty A. Majaj
Mr. Musaddaq T. Sanouri
Mr. Saber K. Abu Arkoub
Mr. Ishaq A. Budairi
Mr. Abd El Karim Asad
Mr. Nadir R. Sunukrut
Mr. Ahmad I. Sharif
Miss Rihab Isawi
Mr. Fayez M. Jarrar
Mr. Shihadah H. Dajani
Mr. George A. Amireh
Dr. Abd-Al Rahman Shunnar
Mr. Ali M. Yaish
Mr. Raid J. Al Arja
Mr. Adel S. Shawar
Mr. Abd Alfattah I. Dudin

Mr. Khalil Tarih	Dr. Abd-Almajd Elzir	Mr. Muhammad K. Abu-Hashim
Dr. Rustom D. Nimri	Mr. Edward Dabdoub	Mr. Hanna K. Al-Atrash
Mr. Michael G. Guraitem	Mr. Anton I. Nahhas	Mr. Mahmoud M. Obedo
Miss Rima Abu Sharifa	Mr. Michael A. Bahbah	Mr. Isa N. Abu Aitah
Mr. Ribhi A. Neiroukh	Mr. Hamdi E. Duais	Miss Nada S. Rsas
Mr. Ahmad Muhtasib	Dr. Adib Kaisi	Dr. Jabra S. Al-Araj
Mr. Jamil A. Muhanna	Miss Hulwah J. Giacaman	Mr. Musa O. Kawasmi
Mr. Fawzi Natsheh	Mr. Hamdi M. Kawasmi	Mr. Haj Amin Al-Asheh
Dr. Saeb Erakat	Dr. Kamal Hijjeh	Mr. Muhammad M. Masrouji
Mr. Ibrahim M. Salameh	Mr. Hikmat Al Masri	Mr. Muhammad H. Ghatheleh
Mr. Ellias Y. Salsaa	Mr. Jibril M. Natsheh	Mr. Nasir K. Nassar
Mr. Yousif M. Nammourah	Mr. Kamal I. Hassouneh	Mr. Abd Alhamid Shawer
Mr. Omar M. Jayousi	Mr. Fawzi Y. Kaisi	Mr. Suheil Barakah
Mr. Yasir O. Katib	Mr. Yahya Y. Al Reemawi	Mr. Ibrahim H. Abd-Elhadi
Mr. Mahmoud A. Jawabrah	Mr. Mahmoud Y. Al-Zagal	Mr. Musa Khadir
Mr. Zuhair H. Al-Amad	Mr. Qhattas M. Dawood	Mr. Muhammad A. Fataftah
Mr. Abd Al Hay Shahin	Mr. Charles R. Dabdoub	Mr. Akram A. Okkeh
Mr. Muhammad I. Dudin		

Thanks are due to Mrs. Enid Dron whose professional typing transformed my handwriting into a genuine, legible piece of work.

Last but not least, my deepest gratitude and love is owed to my parents, fifteen brothers and sisters for their encouragement, support, endurance, sacrifice, and continuous praying to God for my continued success in all my endeavours.

Samir A. Abuznaid
Glasgow
May 1990

ABSTRACT

This study is designed to explore and examine the various aspects of management attitudes, beliefs, and business culture on the West Bank. It investigates top managers personal, organisational and societal background. Within this general framework, the study aims to investigate the various aspects such as: managers characteristics, exogenous and endogenous pressures facing managers, attributes expected of managers, managers way of obtaining their present jobs. Their decision making styles, ways of handling functional problems, managers view of an ideal employee, managers nervousness, managers attitudes towards time, life insurance, mediation, nepotism, bribes, the employment of women, customs and traditions, an increase in business automation and technology, and attitudes towards jobs and various managerial functions and themes. Moreover, this study aims to explore the role of women as managers in the West Bank as well as to examine respondents needs and need satisfaction. A comparison of the major findings with other findings of relevant research will also be drawn in this study.

It is believed that in order to understand managers attitudes, beliefs and behaviour, one should first understand the background which created such attitudes and beliefs. As a result the researcher opened this study with a general overview of the West Bank environment. The opening includes a discussion of the population and the geographical, historical, political, social, educational and economic environment in that region.

The data for the research were gathered by interviewing a sample of 177 top Arab managers from 177 organisations in the West Bank. The average interviewing time was 40 minutes.

All statistical analysis were performed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSSx). The Chi-square test of association (X^2) was performed

so as to search for association between the various variables and questions. The Multivariate Discriminant Analysis (MDA) was also used for the attitudes and beliefs sections.

Some of the outcomes emerging from the analysis include:

1. West Bank managers on average are highly educated
2. West Bank managers are working under enormous pressures and as a result over half of them sometimes feel nervous at work.
3. The majority of West Bank managers obtained their jobs through normal job placement methods.
4. The consultative style of decision making is the most pervasive style in the West Bank.
5. Although the vast majority of West Bank managers believe that mediation, nepotism, and bribes are widely used in the West Bank, the vast majority of managers are against the use of such practices.
6. West Bank managers have a high appreciation of time and they also put a great deal of emphasis on communication and the importance of good relationships with employees. Yet the findings indicate that West Bank managers are not pro planning and forecasting.
7. As for women managers surveyed it was found that their major role in society is national and patriotic.
8. The majority of West Bank managers are pro change. They would like to see an increase in the number of working women, an increase in freedom from cultural customs and traditions and in increase in business automation and technology.
9. Although social need was considered the managers most important need, it was also found to be their most satisfied one.

Finally, the study includes fruitful suggestions and recommendations for future research. All suggestions are aimed at enhancing the knowledge of West Bank management in particular and of human behaviour in the Arab and the business world in general.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

"To understand managers behaviour it is necessary to study their attitudes and beliefs". (1)

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the reader with an introduction to the thesis. This will include a discussion of the background to the study, statement of the problems, major objectives, limitations, methodology used, and significance of the study as well as to present an outline of the final layout of the thesis.

A key issue for organisation science is the influence of national culture on management⁽²⁾. This study is focused on the Arab top managers in the West Bank. It aims at exploring their attitudes, beliefs, and the influence of culture on their behaviour, decision making and way of thinking. In the measurement of attitude one of the assumptions is that attitude is a clear cut concept and the only need of a researcher is to apply it to the physical context. This view is rather simple if one considers the theoretical structure of attitudes suggested by Krech *et al*. (1962) who suggest three components to the attitude: the cognitive component, the emotive component, and the action tendency component.

Twenty or even ten years ago, the existence of relationship between management and national cultures was far from obvious to many, and it may not be obvious to every one⁽³⁾. There was a widespread belief that management was something universal and that the models which were

surveyed would be equally valid in Europe and the US and even in poor countries of the Third World, which would become rich as well and would be managed just like the rich countries. That was the type of thinking which dominated the 1950s, and 60s. This is sometimes described as the “convergence hypothesis”.

It is clear that Arab executives managerial behaviour is heavily influenced by social structure and by the values, norms and expectations of its people⁽⁴⁾. Nationality is important to management and there is a difference between the people of different geographic areas. There are differences in what people believe, what they seek to accomplish, and how they go about achieving their desires⁽⁵⁾. Arab managers like any other managers do influence the society in which they live and in return are influenced by the environment of their work. So we can move on to conclude that Arab executives managerial behaviour is heavily influenced by society's social structure and by the values, norms and expectations of this people⁽⁶⁾. It is a well established fact that different cultures possess different organisational norms and behaviour standards and that they recognise those legitimate forms of influence⁽⁷⁾, so there is a difference in national cultures. The naive assumption that management is the same or is becoming the same around the world, is not tenable in view of these demonstrated differences in national cultures. Therefore, it is believed that the success of management is dependent on the ability to adapt to the situation and environment.

This study is an exploratory piece of research which aims at exploring selected managerial issues like attitudes and beliefs of managers.

Issues like managers needs and need satisfaction will also be examined.

There are many studies on Arab managers but so far not a single one of this type was conducted on West Bank managers. This study is therefore unique. It is peculiar because it is carried out in an environment which renders it distinguishable.

The study was carried out on West Bank Arab managers under the Israeli occupation and the data was collected during the Palestinian Intifada which added significance to the study. The West Bank as well as the rest of the occupied land is characterised by the day to day instability of the area. It is such that instability of the region that lays the future of the West Bank in the hands of the Israeli government and military headquarters.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The continuous involvement in international business has created a big need for organisational studies and an increase in knowledge about foreign cultures. Academicians and business managers alike are all interested in such studies in order to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of foreign operations of multinational businesses and in order to minimize the cultural shock that managers face when moving to work in alien cultures. A need for knowledge and understanding concerning individual managers in host countries, as a part of our overall knowledge of foreign cultures stimulated interest in exploring and examining the various aspects of managers attitudes, beliefs and behaviour in foreign countries. Since managers are considered to be the agents who plan and implement business strategies, and hence their beliefs, attitudes and the culture in which they operate are thought to have an enormous effect on their behaviour, their study, therefore, has become so vital.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study presents the reader with the first comprehensive study of the aspect of management attitudes, beliefs, and business culture on the West Bank.

Fishbein defined the term “attitude” as “a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable way to persons or objects in an environment e.g. like or dislike something”.⁽⁸⁾ Smith’s Dictionary of Psychology defined attitude as “an acquired or learned and established tendency to react towards or against something or somebody”.⁽⁹⁾ Longman’s Dictionary has defined the term “belief” as “conviction of the truth of some statement or the reality of some being, thing, or phenomenon, especially when based on examination of evidence”.⁽¹⁰⁾ In my own definition, belief, is something you never question, something you accept, like religion for example. The term culture has been defined as “the customary beliefs, social forms etc. of a racial, religious, or social group”.⁽¹¹⁾ Hodge and Johnson have defined culture as the way in which society lives including the relationship among values, roles, standards of behaviour. More definitions, however, will be given later on in the analysis of the study.⁽¹²⁾

Having defined these terms briefly, I would like to emphasise that the main objective of this present study will be to explore and examine the significant aspects of West Bank managers attitudes, beliefs and culture.

Within the framework of the general objectives, this study aims to explore and examine the following aspects:

1. The personal characteristics of Arab managers in the West Bank.
Managers characteristics such as their age, sex, marital status, level of

education, languages they speak, and their length of service, all will be examined.

2. Business characteristics. This study aims to look at the various characteristics of businesses which managers operate. Business characteristics include the size, age of firm, type of ownership, and number of females employed.
3. The environment in which managers work. Regarding this objective managers will be asked to name the main exogenous and endogenous pressures they encounter. An examination of the main attributes expected of managers by their community, business organisation, and employees as well as the main traits that make a successful manager will all be examined.
4. To examine managers decision making style and their interpersonal relationships. In order to determine the decision making style the researcher will use a four point continuum reflecting the various degrees of power sharing between the manager and his subordinates. An almost similar continuum was used by Likert (1967) and Ali & Swiercz (1986). Like the continuum used by Likert, this study does not include a fifth continuum (delegation of decisions).

As for the managers and their interpersonal styles, this study aims to explore and examine the following aspects:

- managers way of obtaining their present jobs
- managers way of handling functional problems
- managers attitudes towards the use of mediation, nepotism and bribery
- managers view of an ideal employee
- managers view of the main traits that make a successful manager
- managers affiliation with professional bodies and organisations.

5. To examine the attitudes and beliefs of managers towards the following aspects:
- towards time
 - towards life insurance
 - towards change. This aspect includes both the socio cultural change (i.e. towards women in employment, and the removal of customs and tradition, if any) and technological change (i.e. the increase in business technology and change).

In order to examine managers attitudes towards change every manager in the survey was given the statement about change and was then asked to respond with the answer that best reflected his/her attitude towards such change using a four point Likert-type rating scale ranging from "strongly favour" to "strongly oppose".

6. To examine the attitudes and beliefs of managers towards various managerial functions and themes. Managerial functions to be examined will include planning and forecasting, organising and staffing, communicating, motivating and leading.

On the other hand, the managerial themes will include, management relationships (i.e. with employees), tenure, social and group and individual behaviour

In order to examine managers attitudes and beliefs, every manager in the survey was asked to respond to each statement on the questionnaire by choosing the answer that best reflected his/her attitudes and beliefs using a five point Likert-type rating scale, ranging

from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

7. To determine managers needs and need satisfaction. Referring to managers needs, the researcher adopted Maslow's hierarchy of needs but with some modifications (no questions about biological needs and a division of Maslow's Esteem Category, into Esteem and Autonomy). To measure the managers needs, every manager in the survey will be asked to respond to several needs by choosing the answer that best reflected his/her need using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “utmost importance” to “no importance”. As for managers need satisfaction, every manager will be asked to respond to the same needs by choosing the answer that best reflects his/her degree of satisfaction using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “very satisfied” to “very dissatisfied”.
8. Finally, this study aims to compare and contrast the results found with those of previous and related research.

1.4 Research Methods

In order to achieve the stated goals and objectives of the study, a questionnaire was devised in a manner that would provide an optimum level of information. The questionnaire was arrived at after a thorough reviewing by the researcher of other related questionnaires, like Muna (1980), Sulieman (1984). The questionnaire was used as the main research tool using an interview method. Beside the questionnaire, the observation technique was used to collect information on sample characteristics and work environments.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The present study will give a better understanding of a key issue for organisation science, which is the influence of national culture on management using the West Bank as an example. This study will give an insight into the type of management in an area witnessing continuous political instability. Therefore, this study will enhance our understanding of West Bank managers behaviour by studying their attitudes, beliefs, and cultures. This study is considered to be a continuation of the studies already existing about Arab management, so it will enhance the knowledge with this regard. It will also help fill the knowledge gap already existing in the literature about human behaviour in organisation.

The nature of the study is also of interest. The study is carried out on businesses in the West Bank where the infrastructure is now well founded and some firms are not allowed to be established or enlarged. Thus the managers way of managing their firms might differ accordingly from others, due to these circumstances. Therefore, for the West Bank this study is to be regarded as the main significant study which has been dedicated to West Bank managers themselves through the availability of certain guidelines that might be applicable. Such guidelines will be developed through contrasting and comparison with other studies on management in the Arab and Western World.

Finally, the results of the study will, therefore, provide an evidential base to the existing literature on human attitudes, and beliefs as they relate to West Bank organisations.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

This study did not proceed without complications either due to internal or

external factors. The main limitations of the study include:

1. The study is applied to top management, therefore neglecting other managerial levels, so the results cannot be easily generalised to other levels of management.
2. The sample taken for the purpose of the study was confined to West Bank Arab managers. Alien managers were excluded from the sample; those managers work on a contract basis or are sent by their countries and leave the West Bank as soon as their contracts expire.
3. The difficulty in arranging interviews due to long procedures of formalities the researcher had to go through in order to obtain permission from the Israeli authorities. (See Appendix 3).
4. Managers avoidance of being interviewed either because they are busy or because they do not want anyone to know what they are actually doing.
5. Limitation of questionnaire type research (lack of opportunity to probe, imposition of specific indicators and excluding others, and the limitations of the Likert scale approach).
6. Lack of literature on this subject and the lack of publications by many businesses.
7. This study is confined to the West Bank thus excluding Gaza Strip which is also considered part of Palestine. It is, however, excluded because prior to 1967, Gaza Strip was under the control of Egypt, a country different from the Hashmite Kingdom of Jordan which was in control of the West Bank.
8. This study was carried out during the time of the Palestinian uprising (Intifada) in the occupied territories which resulted in the closure of many private businesses and institutions as well as the resignation of some administrators in the public sector mainly the police and tax

personnel. (Israel Civil Administration) in response to repeated calls for resignation made by the Unified National leadership of the uprising.

9. Limitations caused by the occupation. The reader should realise that a survey of this kind can only be carried out in the occupied West Bank under tremendous difficulties not normally faced by a social scientist. There are many factors that have intervened in the conduct of the study. Such factors include:
 - (a) the presence of military forces, and its effect on the life, sanity and other relationships among Palestinians in the occupied territories.⁽¹³⁾ This factor is of particular concern because of the widespread arrests by Israeli soldiers that normally take place in the daytime.
 - (b) Interviewer interrogated and intimidated at gun point before being turned away from a research centre in the occupied city of Hebron
 - (c) The problem of military checkpoints, arrests, curfews, road blocks and travel restrictions within the West Bank, was an integral part of this research.
 - (d) The presence of military soldiers at the entrances of many public buildings. Their presence made the researcher more vulnerable to attacks by Palestinian nationals while interviewing administrators inside the buildings, as soldiers are the main target of Palestinian attacks.
 - (e) The researcher was searched and interrogated every time he went back to his home country and before re-entering his country of birth. Research documents and papers were thoroughly examined by the Israeli intelligence. (Mukhabarat)
 - (f) The closure of all West Bank colleges and universities in

addition to the closure of the “Arab Studies Society” in Jerusalem. All these institutions were ordered closed by the Israeli Defence Minister, Yitzhak Rabin, just two months after the beginning of the Palestinian Intifada. The closure of these institutions which is still in effect today, has denied the researcher access to a large amount of literature pertaining to the Occupied West Bank. Therefore, while in the West Bank the researcher depended heavily on the use of municipal and public libraries such as the Arab Thought Forum Library in East Jerusalem and other city libraries throughout the West Bank. In addition to the consultation of local daily newspapers and publications of the West Bank Data Base Project (WBDBP) in Jerusalem. A large amount of literature was also gathered from local book shops in the occupied territories.

- (g) The researcher’s fear of being labeled as a collaborator with the Israeli authorities for going into government offices which the Unified National Leadership of the uprising called for boycotting. Such reputation put the researcher’s life at risk.

The above mentioned limitations, however, do not reduce the value and importance of this study. But to be realistic, the researcher believes that readers should be informed of all drawbacks and limitations pertaining to a study in addition to the results.

1.7 Layout of the Study

In this section, the researcher will give a brief description of the organisation of this study. As we noticed thus far, the first chapter provides the reader with an introduction about the thesis. Such introduction includes

the background of the study, statement of the problem, its main objectives, limitations, methodology used, and its significance as well as its organisation.

The second chapter gives a general overview of management. It discusses the various meanings of management, its nature, its functions as well as its theories.

The third chapter deals with cross-cultural studies in management and organisational behaviour. This chapter will also shed light on the various definitions of the term "culture". This chapter aims to clarify the four different dimensions of national culture as provided by Hofstede's study of national cultures.

Chapter four presents an overview of the major relevant literature on Arab management. Various studies on Arab management in different parts of the Middle East and the Gulf will be examined although, these studies have been carried out in different political and socio-economic climates.

Chapter five aims at giving a better understanding of the geography and population of the West Bank. This chapter will also include a general overview of the major historical developments in that part of the globe.

Chapter six deals with West Bank economy. It will, however, present an overview of the major sectors of the West Bank economy. Such overview will include sectors like agriculture, industry, employment.

Chapter seven is intended to give a clear description of the main religious

beliefs and practices of people in the West Bank. This description will include the main definitions of Islam and its pillars. This part of the thesis will enhance the readers understanding of Islam and management. This section will also shed light on the main cultural themes in the West Bank such as honour and hospitality.

Chapter eight presents a general background to the education in the West Bank. This chapter aims to introduce the reader to the formal education as well as to the various institutions of higher learning. It is in this chapter that all major constraints and problems facing education in the West Bank will be discussed. This chapter also aims to give an overview of the various educational levels of both males and females in that territory.

Chapter nine is devoted to a discussion of the research methodology and the tools of measurement. The discussion will include a description of the questionnaire, its planning and design. It will also deal with the research design, research objectives, research problems in the field, methods of handling the various problems. It is in this chapter that the computation and methods of data analysis will be defined.

Chapter ten deals with the findings of the study. It will deal with the sample characteristics. These characteristics will include managers age, sex, language, education, marital status, length of service and father's occupation. The second part of this chapter will be devoted to the discussion of the organisational characteristics as discovered from the findings. Organisational characteristics will include the sector, age, size of firm and the number of females employed.

Chapter eleven is devoted to a discussion of West Bank environment. Such discussion will deal with the various exogenous and endogenous pressures faced by managers. The second part of the chapter will deal with the various attributes expected of managers by their community, organisations, and employees as cited by managers. This section will also deal with the discussion of the major traits that contribute to managers success as perceived by respondents.

Chapter twelve will focus on the discussion of West Bank managers decision making styles as well as their interpersonal relationships. This chapter therefore aims to discover how West Bank managers employ power in decision making, to what extent they involve their subordinates in this function, and what are the main variables which affect the decision making process. As for the managers interpersonal relationships, this chapter aims to discuss the various aspects such as managers way of obtaining their jobs, mediation, nepotism, bribery, manager subordinate relationships, managers view of an ideal employee and their affiliation with professional bodies and organisations.

Chapter thirteen will concentrate on the discussion of managers attitudes toward change. Managers attitudes towards time and life insurance will also be examined in this chapter. The second part of this chapter will be devoted to the discussion of managers attitudes towards change. More specifically, this chapter aims to discuss managers attitudes toward the employment of women as managers and labourers, the need for more freedom from customs and traditions, and their attitudes towards the increase in business automation and technology. Finally, this chapter will discuss the major variables which affect managers attitudes toward these changes.

Chapter fourteen attempts to investigate the major roles of all women managers surveyed. More specifically, their roles as members of mankind, members of families and as members of society. However, in order to achieve this objective a thorough discussion of their background will be presented in this chapter.

Chapter fifteen will be dedicated to the discussion of managers attitudes and beliefs towards various managerial functions and themes. The managerial function to be examined will include functions like planning and forecasting, organising and staffing, communicating, leading and motivating. On the other hand, the managerial themes will include management relationships (i.e. with employees), social, seniority, and individual and organisational behaviour. The chapter also aims to discover the main variables (individual and organisational) which have a strong discriminating power on managers attitudes towards the various functions and themes. The remaining part of this chapter will be dedicated to the discussion of managers needs and need satisfaction. The findings will be compared and contrasted with other findings such as that of Badawy which examined managers needs and need satisfaction in several Arab countries.

Chapter sixteen will present a brief summary of the study. Such summary will contain the arguments and conclusions described in previous chapters with special emphasis on the implications of the findings to management in the West Bank. Long term perspectives and suggestions for future research conclude the chapter.

CHAPTER 1

Endnotes

1. Haire *et al*, Cultural Patterns in the Role of Managers, Industrial Relations, 2, 1963, pp.95-117.
2. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practice and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies, Fall 1983, p.75.
3. Ibid., p.75.
4. Farid A. Muna, The Arab Executive, (The Macmillan Press Ltd, London, 1980), p.1
5. Branner Hodgson, Overseas Management, (McGraw Hill Book Company, 1965), p.3.
6. Farid Muna, *op cit.*, p.1.
7. Lane Kelley and Reginald Worthley, The Role of Culture in Comparative Management: Across Cultural Perspective. Academy of Management Journal, Vol.24, No.1., 1981, p.165.
8. Martin Fishbein, Readings in Attitudes Theory and Measurement, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967), p.66.
9. E. Smith, Dictionary of Psychology.
10. Longman Dictionary, 1987, p.56.
11. Ibid., p. 66.
12. Billy J. Hodge and Herbert Johnson, Management and Organisational Behaviour: A Multidimensional Approach (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970), p. 66.
13. Ibrahim W. Ata. The West Bank Palestinian Family. (London, KPI, 1986), p. VI.

CHAPTER 2

MANAGEMENT: AN OVERVIEW

"We are often told that the first employing units, or "organisations" which were large enough to warrant the need for separate arrangements in this special "managerial" mode were the American Railroads of the latter half of the nineteenth century.⁽¹⁾ Yet Napoleon took an army of some 500,000 men to Moscow successfully, though it is true that he did not "manage" to get them back with equal success".⁽²⁾

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is threefold. First to give an introduction to management, its importance as well as its functions. Second, to present a clear description of the main differences between management and leadership. Lastly, this chapter aims to define, evaluate and discuss the various theories of leadership as found in literature.

2.2 Management Background

Management involves the achievement of results by the full utilisation of resources. It is not enough for managers to supply men, money, machines and material as a starting point for their activities, but it is essential for managers to supply the ideas, leadership, inspiration as well as confidence in order to manage effectively. Management is a most important subject because it deals with establishing and achieving goals and objectives⁽³⁾.
(See Figure 2.1)

It is argued that virtually all managerial practices and activities are the product of the present century. Chandler (1978) indicated that the first employing units, or 'organisations' which were large enough to warrant the need for separate arrangements in this special 'managerial' mode were the

American railroads of the latter half of the nineteenth century.⁽⁴⁾ Yet it is quite evident that many complex operations and activities were planned and executed in a manner which might be labeled as 'managerial' today, well before there was any formalised body of management knowledge and techniques.⁽⁵⁾ Napoleon, for example, took an army of 500,000 men to Moscow successfully, though it is true that he did not 'manage' to get them back with equal success.⁽⁶⁾

Management is found in almost every human activity. Management exists to some degree in the factory, office, school, bank, store, motel, church, home, hospital or armed forces.⁽⁷⁾ Organisation requires the making of decisions, the coordination of performance directed toward group objectives. So management has become more important as labour has become more specialised and as the scale of operations has increased. Though different types of organisation require different types of management jobs, no matter what kind of an organisation you work in you need management.

Management is universal, it is universal in a way that it is not confined to business enterprise alone, but is applicable whenever people attempt to reach a stated goal through group efforts. In the 1950s and 60s the dominant belief, at least in Europe and in the US was that management was something universal.⁽⁸⁾ Massie 1971, pointed out that the practice of managing is a universal activity in all countries of the world. The approaches of management, however, differ among countries.⁽⁹⁾

The concept of universality is also applicable to all levels of managers within an organisation and is not confined only to the top echelon. There are

three levels of management (see Figure 2.1), the board of directors and top managers, middle level managers, and lower level managers. Managers in the organisational hierarchy are concerned with different kinds of objectives. As we can see in Figure 2.1, the objectives of a firm also form a hierarchy, ranging from the purpose at the top to the setting of objectives on department and unit levels as well as the objectives of subordinates development.

To explain Figure 2.1 we notice that the main aims of the board of directors and top level managers are:⁽¹⁰⁾

First: determining the purpose of the firm. The purpose of the firm includes: the purpose of society such as the demands placed on organisations to contribute to the welfare of the people, and, to keep the society and the environment clean and free from litter etc. The purpose of the firm may also include the providing of services to every person in the community at a reasonable cost.

Second: determining the mission of the firm. The mission statement and the purpose of the firm are interrelated and the distinction between them is a very fine one and therefore many writers do not recommend the differentiation between them.⁽¹¹⁾ However, the mission statement of a firm may include the production, marketing, and the providing of services at low cost and in a more efficient and reliable way.

Third: the third task of the board of directors and top level managers includes the setting of the overall objectives of the firm and in key result areas. These are the areas in which performance is essential for the success of the firm. It is worth noting, however, that although the objectives such as the performance and development

of goals are at the bottom level of the hierarchy, managers at higher level as well should set objectives for this performance and their performance and their development.

As a result and for the purpose of this study, the term “top manager” means the person who formally heads the organisation (either because he is the owner, or because the owner or the government has appointed him/her to fill the vacancy. Therefore, he is solely responsible for the whole organisation and for all its activities such as production, manufacturing, marketing and the providing of services etc.

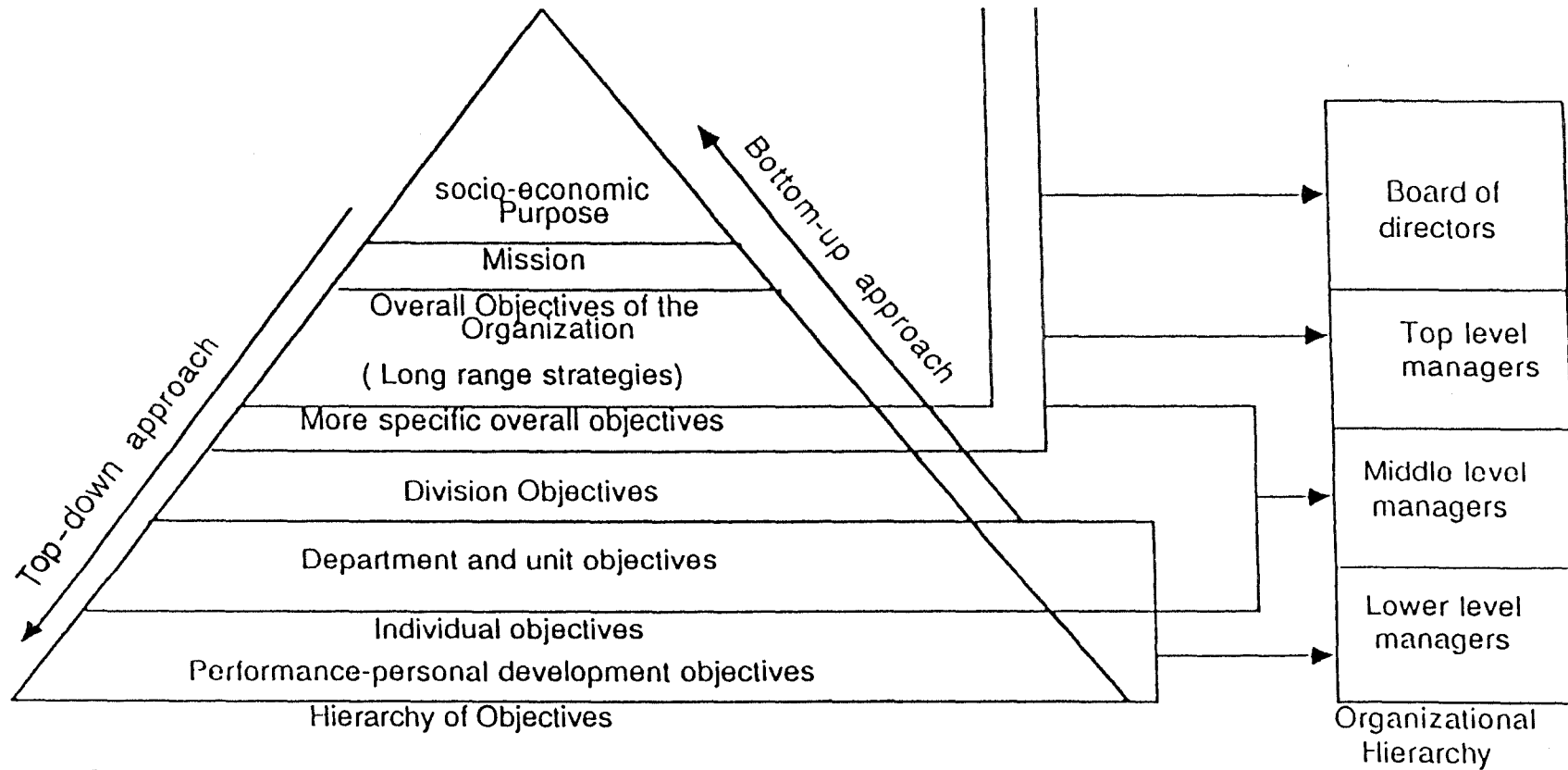
Middle level managers such as the vice president or manager of marketing or the production manager, are involved in setting of key result area objectives, division objectives, as well as department objectives.⁽¹²⁾ While on the other hand, the primary aim of lower level managers is the setting of objectives on department and unit level as well as the performance and development goals of their subordinates.⁽¹³⁾

As for the issue of whether an organisation should use the top down or the bottom up approach in setting objectives, Figure 2.1 shows that in the top down approach upper level managers set the objectives and communicate them to be carried out by subordinates while in the bottom up approach subordinates set the objectives and present them to their superiors. This latter approach is known as management by objectives (MBO). However, it is beyond the objectives of this study to indulge in the issue of setting objectives in organisations.

Regarding achievement of objectives, there is inevitably the bringing together of available basic resources. These resources are known as the Six Ms' of management. They include men and women, materials, machines, methods, money and markets.⁽¹⁴⁾

Figure 2.1

Relationship of Objectives and the Organizational Hierarchy



Source: Adapted From H. Weihrich and J. Mendelson, Management: An MBO Approach, (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1978), p.xi.

2.3 The Meaning of Management? Its Importance?

Management is defined in many ways depending upon the view points, beliefs, and understanding of the definer. To illustrate this, some scholars defined management as “the process of working with and through others to achieve organisational objectives in a changing environment”. Central to this process is the effective use of limited resources⁽¹⁵⁾. Others claim “management is getting things done through people”, while others claim that management can be summarised as “the process of working with and through other people to accomplish organisational goals”.⁽¹⁶⁾ An additional definition is “management is the coordination of all resources through the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling in order to attain stated objectives”.⁽¹⁷⁾ Massie, defined management as “the process by which a cooperative group directs action towards common goals”.⁽¹⁸⁾ Although the study of management should help an individual become a better manager, this is not the only and ultimate goal of management.

The ultimate objective of management is to satisfy the needs of both the society and the individual. In order to attain these objectives Drucker suggests that there are three tasks which management has to perform to enable the institution in its charge to function and to make its contribution:

- The specific purpose and mission of the institution whether business enterprise, hospital or university
- Making work productive and the worker achieving
- Managing social impacts and social responsibilities.⁽¹⁹⁾

From this previous discussion one can say that the study of management is very essential to all citizens because organisations have strong impacts on

the lives of others and on the society as a whole. Management is the function not only of the corporation president and the army general but also of the shop manager and the student as well. Sometimes in fact, we are said to be living in “an organisational society” or “a managerial society” and there is no such thing as bad luck in business but bad management or mismanagement.

2.4 Nature of Management

Management Scholars have disagreed on the nature of management. Some described management as an art. Others claim management is a science, while others tend to characterise it as a profession. So how do we classify management? Management is the combination of all these definitions. Management is an art, science, and a profession providing the fact that profession is defined as an occupation that serves others. However if a profession is defined as a vocation requiring licensing and graduate study, such as medicine and law, then management is not a profession.⁽²⁰⁾ To illustrate the fact that management is an art, science, and a profession, let us take the driver example. Before a driver becomes a driver he needs to pass a written driving test (science) in which he will be asked about driving laws, regulations, and safety procedures etc. If he passes the test he will be qualified as a driver and a licence will then be issued only after he passed a road test as well. Management is considered an art when the driver applies all he has learned to practice. After the driver obtains his licence he will then be practicing driving as a profession either by driving a company bus or a taxi or becoming employed within a company's shipping department.

2.5 Functions of Management

For some writers and academicians, the functions of management are

viewed as the most popular ways to describe the functions of managers. It is worth noting, however, that the various managerial functions are interrelated and should not be interpreted as distinct and separate steps with no overlaps. A manager may and often does perform simultaneously or at least as part of a continuum, all of the following functions:

2.5.1 Planning:

Planning is the most important function of management. Planning is the foundation of management functions. It is the cornerstone for all other managerial functions. It is on planning that all management functions depend. Planning is the formulation of future course of action. Plans and objectives on which they are based give purpose and direction to the organisation, its sub-units, and contributing of individuals.⁽²¹⁾ Kreitner went on to say that planning is defined as the process of preparing for change and coping with uncertainty by formulating future course of action.⁽²²⁾ Sisk defined planning as the “process through which decisions are made about the results an organisation expects to achieve and about the course of action most likely to lead to their achievement”.⁽²³⁾

2.5.1.1 Why Plan?

One of the most important and greatest benefits of planning is that it clearly defines the organisation purpose and goals, thereby providing the basis for coordination and the unification of actions by all members of the organisation, especially in large organisations. Planning reduces risk thus decreasing the statistical probability of failure. Hence the basis for planning is the gathering and analysing of information about the firms resources, its personnel, money, market, technologies, raw materials, and energy resources. From this we can say that in order to manage a business

one needs to manage its future, and in order to manage its future one needs to manage its information. Planning becomes even more important due to the limited resources and uncertain environment.⁽²⁴⁾

2.5.2 Organising:

Organising is the second function of management. Organising means the structuring of a coordinated system of authority relationships and task responsibilities.⁽²⁵⁾ By defining who is going to do what and who should report to whom, organisational structure can translate strategy into an ongoing productive operation. Careful organising helps ensure the efficient use of human resources. Organisations have goals or reasons for being. To achieve these goals or objectives, the work has to be delegated or even divided among people. By dividing this work or that, a manager is automatically organising. From this we can say that when people gather together and formally agree to combine their efforts for a common purpose, an organisation is the result.⁽²⁶⁾ Organisations share common characteristics:⁽²⁷⁾

- (a) Coordination of efforts;
- (b) Common goal or purpose;
- (c) Division of labour;
- (d) Hierarchy of authority

2.5.3 Staffing:

People are companies greatest assets. It is people who do the work. It is people who make decisions and it is people who make the organisations. Therefore, it is necessary to have the right people in the right organisation. Filling jobs with appropriately skilled people is staffing.⁽²⁸⁾ Staffing policies affect an organisation in two ways. First, effective staffing increases the general level of competence of employees in the performance

of their assigned duties. Secondly, staffing policies have a direct bearing on the mobility of employees from one position to another within the organisation, a factor that can contribute significantly to the motivation of employees.⁽²⁹⁾ The effectiveness of staffing will be determined by the following elements:

- (1) Selection: selection refers to the hiring of the most qualified people to fill available jobs. Today's managers are challenged to find the best available talent without unfairly discriminating against any segment of society. During the selection process, managers should be aware of the following issues:
 - (a) not to hire an unqualified applicant
 - (b) not to reject a qualified applicant
 - (c) not to get accused of discrimination.

These issues can be detrimental to any job, since management means the achievement of organisation objectives with and through others.

- (2) Promotion: Promotion is the vertical movement upward in the organisational hierarchy and usually is associated with an increase in pay.⁽³⁰⁾ However, promotion is not always associated with an increase in pay or salary. It can be prestigious only. Promotion means the transfer of an employee from one job to another with increased responsibilities and with or without an increase in compensation. Hence, the increase in responsibilities is the main difference between transfer and promotion. Transfer does not necessarily mean an increase in responsibilities and pay.

3. Termination: When talking about termination one is talking about a sensitive issue. Termination does not only mean the firing of an employee from his job but it also means the retirement of an

employee from his post. Organisations are responsible for their employees from the minute they sign their working contract till after their death. Organisations have duties toward the families of the deceased employee. Companies make regular and steady payment to families of deceased workers as well.

2.5.4 Communication.

Communication is yet another function of management. Managers spend most of their time communicating. Communication is what managers do. It consumes some 50 to 90 per cent of their time.⁽³¹⁾ A well known management scholar, Davis, has defined communication as the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person.⁽³²⁾ Communication is a social process.⁽³³⁾ In order to communicate there should be more than one person. Either you communicate face to face or through other communication channels. Communication must have a purpose. Communication without a purpose is merely a great noise and chaos. Communication in general takes many forms. These are downward, upward, crosswise and external communication. A good manager today is the one who is able to communicate successfully. Emerson has said "it is a luxury to be understood" because communication is a complex give and take process.⁽³⁴⁾ There will naturally be problems or barriers that hinder the communication process. These barriers include: process barriers (sender barriers, encoding barriers, receiver barriers and feedback barriers for employer) and physical barriers (inappropriate choice of communication media, soft voice of a manager, poor arrangement and layout of office furniture and the zone difference like coast to coast communication in a nation-wide organisation). There are also semantic barriers, where words can sometimes create a great deal of confusion. To

avoid this, managers are recommended to take special courses in their areas of specialisation, hospital administrators for example, should take courses in medical language, medical technology etc. so that they can better understand the medical staff. Managers need to speak the language of their business.

2.5.5 Decision Making

Most managers duties involve making decisions of one kind or another. A decision can be defined as “a course of action chosen from available alternatives for the purpose of achieving a desired result”.⁽³⁵⁾ Decision making is considered to be a major part of planning. As a matter of fact, given an awareness of an opportunity and goals, the core of planning is really a description of the decision process.

Decision making is quite complex and variable. Today, many decisions in organisations are made by groups or committees. Yet, despite the decision making style used, a good decision making process may be described as follows: ⁽³⁶⁾

First: Awareness of the factors that set the stage for the decision.

Second: Recognition of the right problem. For the achievement of a good decision, the decision maker should pinpoint the problem and design the treatment. Otherwise, the decision maker should look for the problem that caused the symptoms and not the symptoms of the problem.

Third: Search for and analyse available alternatives. In deciding the treatment managers should look for the best course of action taking into consideration its consequences.

Fourth: The selection of the best alternative. Before reaching a decision, a manager should weigh all alternatives available by studying the

pros and cons of each alternative and then deciding which is best for the treatment of the problem.

Fifth: The implementation of the alternative. To be implemented a decision must be accepted by the organisation. They must be communicated. People in the organisation must be motivated to implement the decision; furthermore control provides information for future decisions.

As already mentioned, decisions can be made by individuals or groups. In the following section a review of both the advantages and disadvantages of group decision making in contrast to individual decision making will be made.(37)

Advantages of group decision making

The following advantages are identified as the major advantages which groups offer over individuals in the making of decisions:

First: More complete information and knowledge. There is more information in a group than typically resides with one individual. And as the old saying goes "Two heads are better than one".

Second: Increased acceptance of a solution. As mentioned earlier good decisions must be acceptable by the people implementing them. On many occasions, decisions fail just because people do not accept the solutions. Therefore, it is believed that peoples' participation in the decision making process will increase their commitment and motivation in carrying out the decisions., as members are often reluctant to undermine a decision which they have helped to make.

Third: Increase legitimacy. It is believed that group decision making is

more legitimate than decisions made by a single individual.

Hence, group decision making connotes democracy.

Disadvantage of Group Decision Making

Group decision making may have the following drawbacks:

First: Time consuming. One of the major disadvantages of group decision making is that it is time consuming. In other words, groups take more time to reach a decision than would be the case if an individual was making the decision.

Second: Pressure to conform. The pressures on the group to reach a decision may result in squashing any overt disagreement thus encouraging conformity and compromise among viewpoints.

Third: Ambiguous responsibility. Among the major drawbacks of group decision making is the evading of individual responsibility. Unlike the individual decision making process, group decision making does not define who is actually responsible for the final outcome.

These are some of the major advantages and drawbacks of group decision making as contrasted with individual decisions.

It is evident, however, that both methods of decision making have their advantages and drawbacks. Therefore, in deciding the appropriate method to be used in making decisions a manager should first weigh certain criterias such as the accuracy, speed and the degree of acceptance of the decision.

2.5.6. Control:

Planning and control are complementary functions because corrective action

is usually needed as plans become reality.⁽³⁸⁾ Planning and controlling have one common factor which is objectives. Planning and controlling all start with the establishing of objectives. Johnson and Taison have defined objectives as goals, aims and purposes which managers want the organisation to achieve over a period of time. Objectives are the lights or minarets directing people from far away. Objectives determine what is being accomplished, that is, evaluating the performance and, if necessary, applying corrective measures so that the performance takes place according to plan.⁽³⁹⁾ Control refers to the process by which a person, group, or organisation consciously determines or influences what another person or group or organisation will do.⁽⁴⁰⁾ Controlling is necessary because of environmental organisational and behavioural uncertainties. Despite the importance of controlling, the reaction to it within the society and the organisation is negative. Employees refer to it as a method of directing, coercing and watching. Societies refer to controlling as a way of manipulating, watching, restraining, and inhibiting. Contrary to the negative connotation usually attached to the term 'control', managerial control is a persuasive, positive and future-oriented function.⁽⁴¹⁾

2.5.7. Leading:

In all political systems, there are some people at the top who have more influence than others in the determination of policies, and allocation of resources. Hodge and Johnson (1970) refer to these people as the power elite, the establishment and ruling circles, they exist in democratic and authoritarian, developed and underdeveloped societies.

Leading is a necessary ingredient of management.⁽⁴²⁾ The leader's action and the way his or her followers perform tasks, significantly affect not only

the material results achieved, but also the satisfaction of the followers in performing the work.⁽⁴³⁾ From this one can say that managers performance is measured by those being managed. Leadership is considered by many management scholars as a key function of management and due to this, the topic of leadership has been the subject of considerable research. Many theories of leadership have been developed and yet a considerable amount of money is spent on research to develop these theories but a few which I feel rather important should be explained.

Before moving on to the discussion of these theories it is necessary to define the term 'leadership' and show the difference between leadership and management if there is any.

2.5.7.1 What is Leadership?

Leadership has different meanings to various authors.⁽⁴⁴⁾ There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.⁽⁴⁵⁾ Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals.⁽⁴⁶⁾ It is also defined as "a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organisational objectives".⁽⁴⁷⁾ Terry has defined leadership as the relationship in which one person, the leader, influences others to work together willingly on related tasks to attain that which the leader desires.⁽⁴⁸⁾ Sisk defined leadership as a behaviour through which an individual influences others to achieve specific objectives in specific situations.⁽⁴⁹⁾

Despite the numerous definitions of leadership they will share two common factors:⁽⁵⁰⁾ First, leadership is a relationship between people in which there is a legitimate difference between the power and influence of leaders

and followers. Second, there are no leaders without followers. In fact the leader's influence comes about from the relationship between him and a group member or members. There is interaction or reciprocal reactions of people in a group to each other.⁽⁵¹⁾

There are many approaches that have been taken to define the term leadership. Tead (1929) regarded leadership as a combination of traits, which enable an individual to induce others to accomplish a given task.⁽⁵²⁾ Another approach to the study of leadership is through the description of functions of the leader. The symbolic leader has prestige but no power, the administrative leader "gets things done" while the expert, or more precisely the theorist, stands out because of special qualifications.⁽⁵³⁾ A further approach to the study of leadership has also concentrated on the situation which makes the leader. Successful leadership occurs when the leader style matches the situation.⁽⁵⁴⁾ However, practice is far better than theory, and if we look at different organisations in different nations we will definitely find that their leaders did adapt foreign management to their national culture but only to some extent. Japan for example, was successful in the adaptation of American management to its businesses, yet other countries may not be as fortunate and successful as Japan.⁽⁵⁵⁾ Therefore, before applying foreign management, say American management, both management practitioners and theorists must realise that the activities like "management" and organising are culturally bound. This point was clearly emphasised by Hofstede (1983) when he pointed out that management and organising do not consist of making of removing tangible goods from one place to another, but rather of manipulating symbols which have meaning to the people who are managed or organised.⁽⁵⁶⁾

People are very much influenced by what they see, hear and learn. They are affected by their families, schools, work environments, television, and by their society. Therefore management and organisation are penetrated with culture from the beginning to the end.

Before applying management theories to foreign cultures, management theorists and practitioners must understand the importance of nationality to management. They must understand that nationality is important because of political, sociological, and psychological reasons. (57)

Political: nations are political units with own governments and with their own legal, educational and labour systems.

Sociological: people in different cultures derive their identity from their nationality. Therefore they are very willing to defend their identity by all means. An example of this can be seen in the engagement of wars between nations and across national borders.

Psychological: people thinking is not the same across nations. Peoples' thinking is conditioned by their national culture which is not the same across national borders. People are affected by their families, educational experience and working organisation which are different across cultures.

To conclude this discussion we can say that national and regional cultures seem to have a direct bearing on management. There are national and regional differences which management must understand. In fact, it is believed that these differences between cultures are the major problems or obstacles for management transfer to either the public or the private sector.

And, if management fails to recognise these differences, enormous economic losses and individual suffering will most likely be the outcome.

2.5.7.2 Differences Between Leaders and Non-Leaders

Leadership is both a narrower and broader concept than management. It is narrower because leadership is only a part of the manager's job. Leadership is also a broader concept for individuals who are not managers but also exercise leadership.⁽⁵⁸⁾ An interesting comparison between leader and non-leader practices is illustrated in Figure (2.2).

Figure 2.2 Differences Between a Leader and Non-Leader

Leader	Non-Leader
1. Inspires a follower	Drives the followers
2. Accomplishes work and develops the follower	Accomplishes work at the expense of the follower
3. Shows the follower how to do the job	Instills fear in the follower by threats and coercion
4. Assumes obligations	Passes the buck
5. Fixes the breakdown for failure in attaining the goal.	Fixes the blame on others for failure in attaining the goal.

Source: George R. Terry's Principles of Management 1977, p. 412

Despite this comparison, a leader can be a manager and a manager can be a leader, but neither need to be the same.⁽⁵⁹⁾ A manager is appointed to fill a particular formal position within the organisation. A leader may be elected. The manager derives his authority from his position and from his job, but, by contrast, a leader gets his authority from his followers. Managers operate within the objectives set forth by the higher level administration while leaders are more concerned with the well-being of the followers. These are some differences between a manager and a leader. From these

one can move on to conclude that a leader is a manager but not necessarily every manager is a leader.

2.5.7.3 Theories of Leadership

As mentioned earlier, this subject has been under extensive research and therefore numerous theories of leadership have been developed. They include differences in opinions, methodologies, and explanations.⁽⁶⁰⁾

(1) Trait Theory:

One significant leadership theory is the trait theory. Those who explore the quality of leadership concentrated on the study of great individuals. Their assumptions about leadership were that leaders are born and not made. The trait theory classifies people's personalities by a list of words. Very often trait theories depend on a set of scales called personality inventories.⁽⁶¹⁾ The trait approach has not been a very fruitful approach to explaining leadership. Most of the traits were poorly defined and poorly measured, resulting in endless lists of overlapping traits that supposedly characterised effective leaders but which also characterised many persons who exhibited very little leadership behaviour. Sisk gave many reasons discrediting the trait approach. Some of the reasons include:⁽⁶²⁾

- Trait mainly does not indicate how much of the trait is needed.
- Traits are usually poorly defined and overlapping.
- Tests used in measuring traits are unreliable and of questionable validity.
- The trait approach fails to recognise that leadership requirements vary from one situation to another.
- The trait approach fails to distinguish between traits that are

necessary for success in a certain situation and traits that are merely desirable. Despite the failure of this theory, it should not be discarded so hastily. The trait theory did help in explaining leadership and its dimensions.

(2) The Behavioural Style Theory:

The subject of leadership can also be studied on the basis of the behavioural patterns of the leaders. This theory is concerned with how the leader actually behaved rather than who the leader was. An important contribution of this theory is that a leader neither behaves the same nor takes identical actions for every situation faced.⁽⁶³⁾ One is flexible to some extent in order to take the most effective and most appropriate action for handling a particular problem. This suggests a leadership continuum whereby the leader's actions and amount of authority used are related to the decision-making freedom or participation available to the subordinates.⁽⁶⁴⁾ The following Figure (2.3) illustrates the leadership continuum concept. This chart shows that less authority is used when going from top to bottom which means that more freedom is given to subordinates. Hence, the top part of the figure represents boss-centred leadership. The figure shows that different styles of leadership can be employed depending on the situation, capabilities, desire to decide the issue and the amount of control a manager wishes to exercise. To discuss this theory a little bit further, we can say that this theory has provided a useful way of understanding leadership. It has provided us with two styles of leadership - Autocratic and Participative.

The style of the leader is considered to be one major ingredient of leadership. Autocratic style is identified by McGregor's theory view of

Figure 2.3 Continuum of Leadership Behaviour

	Manager makes and announces decisions
Manager sells decisions	
	Manager presents ideas and asks for questions
Manager often tentative. Decision change possible	
	Manager presents problems, solicits suggestions and makes decisions
Manager defines limits, asks for group decisions	
	Manager lets sub-ordinates function within defined limits

.Source: Adapted from Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern", Harvard Business Review, March-April 1958, pp.95-101.

human nature. An autocratic leader does not seek the opinions of subordinates. He usually supervises closely and motivates through incentives and fear. While in the participative style of leadership managers involve their subordinates in an organisational decision-making process. It does not imply democratic governance or majority rule, nor does it necessarily indicate that the leader is merely a group facilitator whose task is to help a group reach consensus.⁽⁶⁵⁾ Some authors reserve the term participation for a situation in which the decision reached affects a group rather than an individual. The style employed by a manager permits a high degree of subordinate participation in the decision-making process, as the superior seeks the opinion of individual subordinates and requires that they make recommendations about how problems are to be solved.⁽⁶⁶⁾ However, one of the major problems with this kind of leadership style in the form of group decision-making is accountability.

Some companies report success in holding each group member accountable for a group decision, as though each has made the decision alone, but that is almost impossible to do. Today, companies combine both styles and it is believed that in the real world all possible combination of the two styles are practiced. Leadership is also discussed with reference to the managerial grid where Blake and Mouton proposed a managerial grid based on the styles of 'concern for people' and 'concern for production'.⁽⁶⁷⁾

3. The Situational Theory of Leadership:

According to this theory it is the situation that makes a leader. In this theory, leadership is made up of four variables: the leader, the follower, the organisation, and the social, economic and political influences. While all are important, much attention is directed to the organisation and the social, economic and political environment.⁽⁶⁸⁾

Situational leadership theories stress the need for flexibility and reject the notion of a universally applicable style.⁽⁶⁹⁾

Researchers have tried to identify the factors in the situation that influence effectiveness of a certain leadership style. Since the early work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), many researchers have added to and elaborated on the situational factors that affect the leadership style, a manager selection, and the effectiveness of a particular style.⁽⁷⁰⁾ This theory as well as the trait theory produced research showing that effective leadership seemed to depend on a number of variables, such as organisational climate, the nature of the tasks and work activities and managerial values and experiences. Stoner has emphasised that no one trait was common to all effective leaders; no one style was most effective in all situations.⁽⁷¹⁾

Although a number of different situational leadership theories have been developed, they all share one fundamental assumption: successful leadership occurs when the leader style matches the situation.⁽⁷²⁾ There are different approaches to situational leadership. Among these approaches are: Fiedler's contingency theory, the path-goal theory, and Vroom and Yetton's decision-making models.

4. Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

This contingency theory has been developed by Fiedler. Fiedler's model gets its name from the following assumption: the performance of a leader depends on two interrelated factors: (i) the degree to which the situation gives the leader control and influence i.e. the likelihood that he can successfully accomplish the job; and (ii) the leader's basic motivation i.e. whether his self-esteem depends primarily on accomplishing the task or on having close supportive relations with others.⁽⁷³⁾

Concerning the second factor, the leaders motivation, Fiedler believes that leaders are either task motivated or relationship motivated.⁽⁷⁴⁾ Fiedler illustrates in some of his studies that task-motivated leaders are effective in extreme situations when they have either very little control or a great deal of control over situational variables, while in moderately favourable situations, relationship-motivated leaders tend to be more effective.⁽⁷⁵⁾ To sum up the findings of this theory, Fiedler and one of his colleagues concluded that "everything points to the conclusion that there is no such thing as an ideal leader".⁽⁷⁶⁾ Fiedler believes that it is more efficient to move leaders to a suitable situation than to tamper with their personalities by trying to get task-motivated leaders to become relationship-motivated or *vice versa*.⁽⁷⁷⁾

5. Path-Goal Leadership Theory

This theory was formulated by Evans and House and gets its name from the assumption that effective leaders can enhance subordinate motivation by: (a) clarifying the subordinate's perception of work goals, (b) linking meaningful rewards with goal attainments, and (c) explaining how goals and desired rewards can be achieved.⁽⁷⁸⁾ In short, this theory or approach is based on the suggestion that the main function of the leader is to clarify the goals to subordinates and to help them find the best path for achieving these goals. This approach studies leadership in a variety of situations. As perceived by House, this theory builds on various motivational and leadership theories of others.⁽⁷⁹⁾

According to this theory there is no one best method to lead, instead the appropriate style of leadership depends on the situation. For example, ambiguous and uncertain situations can be frustrating for followers and this may demand a more task-oriented style of leadership. However in a routine task where the path is already clear enough to subordinates, subordinates then will need the leader to stay out of their path to avoid redundancy and over controlling by the leader. So it is the situation that will decide the style of leadership. See Figure 2.4.

The theory also proposes that the behaviour of the leader is acceptable and satisfies subordinates to the extent that they see it as a source for their satisfaction.⁽⁸⁰⁾ To conclude this theory, one can say that the key to it is that the leader influences the paths between the behaviour and goals.⁽⁸¹⁾ Despite its great contribution to practicing managers, we must realise that this theory is relatively new and needs further testing before it can be used as a definite guide for managerial work.

Figure 2.4 Contingency Relationship in Path-Goal Leadership

Leadership Style	Situation in Which Appropriate
Directive	Positively affects satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates working ambiguous tasks. Negatively affects satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates working on clearly defined tasks.
Supportive	Positively affects satisfaction of subordinates working on dissatisfying, stressful or frustrating tasks.
Participative	Positively affects satisfaction of subordinates who are ego involved in non-repetitive tasks.
Achievement Oriented	Positively affects confidence that effort will lead to effective performance of subordinates working on ambiguous and non-repetitive tasks.

Source: Alan C. Filley, Robert J. House and Steven Kerr. *Managerial Process and Organisational Behaviour* (Scott, Foreman and Company, 1976)

6. Leader Participation Model

This model of leadership is put forth by Vroom and Yetton. It relates leadership behaviour and participation to decision making. In their model, Vroom and Yetton prescribed five different leadership styles for different situations. See Figure 2.5

Figure 2.5 Vroom and Yetton Alternative Decision-Making Styles

Degree of Subordinate	Decision-Making Styles
None	1. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at that time.
Low	2. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may not tell your subordinates what the problem is when getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.
Moderate	3. You share the problem with relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing together as a group. Then you make decisions that may or may not reflect your subordinates influence.
Moderate	4. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, collectively, obtaining their ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision that may or may not reflect your subordinates influence.
High	5. You share a problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement on a solution. Your role is much like that of a chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution and you are willing to accept and implement any solution that has the support of the entire group

Source: Victor H. Vroom, A New Look at Managerial Decision Making, in Robert Kreitner, Management, Third Edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986), p.471.

2.5.8. Motivation

Motivation can be defined in terms of outward behaviour. It is the willingness to do something and conditioned by this actions ability to satisfy some need for the individual. (82) Koontz *et al* defined motivation as the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces. (83) It is true, however, that people who are motivated tend to exert more and greater effort in carrying out their tasks than people who are not motivated. Therefore, it is the primary duty of managers to satisfy people and to get them to work so as to better achieve the mission and goals of an enterprise or any division within it. In order for the individual to perform effectively, it is therefore necessary for their needs to be satisfied.

The literature revealed numerous theories of motivation. They include: hierarchy of needs theory, theory X and Y, motivation hygiene theory, three needs theory, goal setting theory, equity theory, reinforcement theory, and expectancy theory etc. However, it is beyond the scope of this study to discuss all these theories. Therefore, for the purpose of the study, only Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory will be discussed.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory

It is believed that this theory is the best known theory of motivation. (84) In this theory, Maslow hypothesised that every human being has a hierarchy of five needs. These needs are: (85)

1. Physiological needs. These are the basic needs for sustaining human life. They include food, water, clothes, sex, sleep and other bodily needs.
2. Safety or security needs. Include needs to be free and secure from physical and emotional harm.

3. Social needs - include affection, sense of belonging, acceptance and friendship.
4. Esteem needs - include self respect, autonomy, achievement, status recognition and attention.
5. Self Actualisation. This is regarded as the highest need in the hierarchy. It includes growth, achieving one's potential and self fulfilment.

Maslow indicated that as each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. In his interpretation of the various needs, Maslow separated them into higher and lower order needs. Lower order needs include: physiological and safety, whilst higher order needs include social esteem and self actualisation.

The main difference between these two orders is however made on the premise that higher order needs are satisfied internally whereas lower order needs are predominantly satisfied externally. (86).

Although, the hierarchy of needs theory is a well known theory and undoubtedly applied in management, there is little substantive evidence to indicate that following the theory will automatically lead to a more motivated workforce. Another issue to be answered is: can Maslow's theory be applied intact across cultures, and do people all over the world have the same needs as those highlighted by Maslow?

2.6 Summary

This chapter has given us a clear description of management, its importance as well as its functions. It was clear from this chapter that management is a

most important subject because it deals with establishing and achieving objectives. There are as many definitions of management as there are persons who have attempted to define it. Despite the various definitions, there is one thing in common, the achievement of objectives. As for the functions of management, it was found that management has all of the following functions: planning, organising, staffing, controlling, communicating, decision making, leading and motivating. This chapter has also revealed the differences between management and leadership. The present chapter emphasised that a leader is a manager, but not *vice versa*. The material presented in this section has been helpful in clarifying the different theories of leadership. Such theories include the trait theory, the behavioural style theory, and the situational theory of leadership. These theories were defined, evaluated, and discussed to some extent. Finally this chapter has clarified the four major styles of leadership. These styles include the directive, supportive, participative, and the achievement oriented style of leadership.

CHAPTER 2

Endnotes

1. A.D. Chandler, The United States: Evolution of Enterprise, in Mathias P., and Postan, M.M. (Eds) The Cambridge Economic History of Europe (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978), p.92.
2. P.A. Lawrence and A. Sorge in Peter Lawrence and Ken Elliott, Introducing Management. (England:Penguin, 1985), p.1.
3. George R. Terry, Principles of Management, Seventh edition, (Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, 1977), p.3.
4. A.D. Chandler, *op cit.*, p.92.
5. Peter Lawrence and Ken Elliott, Introducing Management. (England: Penguin, 1985), p.1.
6. P.A. Lawrence and A. Sorge in Peter Lawrence and Ken Elliott, Introducing Management (England: Penguin, 1985) p.1.
7. Thomas W. Johnson and John E. Stinson. Management Today and Tomorrow (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1978), p.10.
8. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practice and Theories. Journal of International Business Studies. Fall, 1983, p.75.
9. Joseph L. Massie, The Study of Management in an International Context (US: Harper and Row, publishers, 1972), pp.4-5.
10. Harold Koontz *et al.* Management. Eighth edition, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1984), pp.128-130.
11. Ibid.,
12. Harold Koontz *et al*, *op cit.*, p.129.
13. Ibid.,
14. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.3.
15. Robert Kreitner, Management, Third Edition (Boston: Houston Mifflin Company, 1986), p.6.
16. Thomas W. Johnson, and John E. Stinson, *op cit.* , p.10.
17. Henry L. Sisk and J. Clifton Williams. Management and Organisation.Fourth edition (South Western Publishing Company, 1981, p.11.
18. Joseph L. Massie, Essentials of Management, Second Edition (New

Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1971) p.4.

19. Peter Drucker, Management: Tasks and Responsibilities (New York, Harper and Row, 1973), p.41.
20. Henry L. Sisk, and J. Clifton Williams, *op cit.*, p.9.
21. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.13.
22. Ibid., p.125.
23. Henry L. Sisk and J. Clifton Williams, *op cit.*, p.63.
24. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.127.
25. Ibid., p. 272.
26. Ibid., p.238.
27. Edgar H. Schein Organisational Psychology, Third Edition, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1980), pp.12-15.
28. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.126.
29. Henry L. Sisk and J. Clifton Williams, *op cit.*, p.96.
30. Ibid., p.97.
31. J.H. Horne and T. Lupton "The Work Activities of Middle Managers" Journal of Management Studies, Vol.1.1, (1965) pp.14-33.
32. Keith Davis, Human Behaviour at Work: Organisational Behaviour, Sixth Edition, (New York: McGraw Hill, 1981), p. 399.
33. A Managers View of the Communication Process. Found in L. Peters "How Important is International Communication?". Personal Journal 62, July 1983, pp.554-560.
34. Ralph Waldo Emerson, quoted in Robert E. Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.343.
35. Joseph L. Massie, *op cit.*, p. 51-52.
36. Ibid., pp. 52-56.
37. Stephen P. Robbins, Essentials of Organisational Behaviour, Second Edition (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1988), pp.112-113.
38. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.530.
39. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.481.
40. Don Hellreigel and John W. Slocum, Management Contingency Approach. (Wesley Publishing Company, 1978). p.270.
41. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.555.
42. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.410.
43. Ibid., p. 410.

44. Harold Koontz *et al*, *op cit.*, p.506.
45. Ralph M. Stodgill, Handbook of Leadership, (New York: The Free Press, 1974), p.7.
46. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p. 117.
47. Chester A. Schriesheim, *et al* Leadership Theory: Some Implications for Managers. MSU Business Topics, 26, (Summer 1978): 35.
48. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, pp. 410-411.
49. Henry L. Sisk and J Clifton Williams *op cit.*, p. 363.
50. Ibid., p.363.
51. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.411.
52. Ralph M. Stodgill, *op cit.*, p.8.
53. Blar J. Kolasa. Introduction to Behavioural Science to Business. (New York. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1969), p.55.
54. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.467.
55. Geert Hofstede, *op cit.*, p.89.
56. Ibid., p.75 - 89.
57. Ibid., p.75 - 89.
58. Thomas W. Johnson *et al*, *op cit.*, p.228
59. Theodore T. Herbert, Dimensions of Organisational Behaviour, Second Edition (New York: McNukkab Publishing Company,. 1981), pp.389-390.
60. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.420.
61. H. Randolph Bobbitt, *et al*. Organisational Behaviour: Understanding and Perfection (Englewood: Prentice Hall Inc., 1978), p.194.
62. Henry L. Sisk and J. Clifton Williams, *op cit.*, p.373.
63. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.422.
64. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to choose a Leadership Pattern" Harvard Business Review (March April 1985), pp.95-101.
65. Henry L. Sisk and J. Clifton Williams, *op cit.*, p.364.
66. Ibid., p.367.
67. See Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton The Managerial Grid III (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985), p.12.
68. George R. Terry, *op cit.*, p.421.
69. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.467.
70. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren S. Schmidt, *op cit.*, pp.95-101.
71. James A.T. Stoner Management, 1984, pp. 477 -478.

72. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.467.
73. Fred E. Fiedler "Job Engineering For Effective Leadership: A New Approach", Management Review 66, Sept. 1977, p.29.
74. Ibid., p.29.
75. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.467.
76. Fred E. Fiedler and Martin M. Chemers, Leadership and Effective Management. (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foreman, 1974), p.91.
77. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.467.
78. Ibid., p.469.
79. R.J. House and T.R. Mitchell "A Path Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness". Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.16, No.3, pp. 321-338, September 1971.
80. See Robert House, and Terence R. Mitchell, "Path-Goal Theory of Leadership", Journal of Contemporary Business, Autumn 1974, pp.81-97 and Alan C. Finlay, Robert J. House and Steven Kerr Managerial Process and Organisational Behaviour (Scott, Foreman and Company, 1976), pp.259-260.
81. Harold Koontz *et al*, *op cit.*, p.253.
82. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, pp. 27-28.
83. Harold Koontz, *et al*, Management, Seventh Edition (Kogakusha: McGraw Hill, 1980), p. 632.
84. Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1957) and a "Theory of Human Motivation", Psychological Review 50 (July 1973), pp. 370-396.
85. Ibid.
86. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p. 29

CHAPTER 3

CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES IN MANAGEMENT

The practice of managing is a universal activity in all countries of the world. The approaches to management, however, differ among countries. In fact, the meaning of the word management varies depending on the language and disciplinary orientation of the user, and the stage of development of the country.⁽¹⁾

3.1 What is Meant by Cross-Cultural Management?

The issue of cross cultural management is closely related comparative management. It is concerned with the study of how management practices compared across different cultures. There is a direct interplay between culture and management; many management practices are at least in part based on the beliefs, customs, and political systems of the culture within which the organisation is operating.⁽²⁾ Both management practitioners and management theorists over the past 80 years did not recognise the extent to which activities like “managing” and “organising” are culturally bound. They are culturally bound because such activities do not consist of making or motivating tangible goods, but rather of manipulating symbols which have meaning to the people who are managed or organised.⁽³⁾

Isolating the influence of culture on the development of managerial values is a perplexing problem for comparative international management research.⁽⁴⁾ In fact the key issue for organisational science is the influence of national cultures on management.⁽⁵⁾ However, cross-cultural studies are inherently difficult because the typical research design fails to differentiate cultural from other environmental influences. Most empirical cross-cultural management studies do not isolate the impact of culture but are actually

national studies that also reflect other factors such as education and economic and legal systems.⁽⁶⁾

One of the basic issues in cross-cultural management research is to determine the extent of the impact which culture has on individuals' behaviour in the work place.⁽⁷⁾ One argument is that individuals, irrespective of culture, are forced to adopt industrial attitudes and behaviour such as rationalism, secularism, and mechanical time concern in order to comply with the imperative of industrialisation. This is commonly known as the convergence hypothesis and its validity is widely debated in the literature. (Harbison and Mayors, 1959; England, Negandhi, and Wilpert 1979, Hofstede 1980, 1983; England and Lee 1974; Kelly and Worthley 1981; Pascale 1978; Webber 1969). For at least the last twenty years, the literature has yielded diverse position on the transferability of modern management principles into different cultures.⁽⁸⁾ This happened extremely effectively in Japan, where mainly US management theories were taken over but in adapted form.⁽⁹⁾ It is believed that cultural differences from one nation to another are more significant than many business management theorists and practitioners appear to recognise.⁽¹⁰⁾ The problems which managers face in various cultures and the ground rules under which they operate are not the same across cultures.⁽¹¹⁾

A review of research shows that most cross-cultural studies are actually cross-national studies which means comparing socio-cultural, political and economic systems and not just culture.⁽¹²⁾ As already mentioned, Hofstede stressed the importance of nationality to management for at least three reasons: the first, very obviously, is political. Nations are political units, rooted in history, with their own institutions, forms of government, legal systems, educational systems, labour and employers association systems.

The second reason is sociological. Nationality or regionality has symbolic value to citizens. The third reason is psychological. Our thinking is partly conditioned by national cultures.⁽¹³⁾ In fact a key issue for organisational science is the influence of a national culture on management.⁽¹⁴⁾ The field of cross-cultural and comparative management is in an early stage of its scientific development. Much of our work is concerned with identification and description of differences in cross cultures.⁽¹⁵⁾ According to two management researchers the quest for the linkage between culture and management attitudes, behaviour, and effectiveness is frustrated by four research problems:

- Inconsistent and vague definitions of the term culture.
- Inaccurate translation of key terminology.
- Difficulty in obtaining representative sample.
- Difficulty in isolating cultural differences amid national economic and political realities.⁽¹⁶⁾

The first research problem is the vague definition of the term culture. Indeed culture is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language.⁽¹⁷⁾ In recent years the term culture has been increasingly in vogue in studies of organisational behaviour because of the growing realisation among organisational scientists and management consultants that the culture of an organisation has as much influence on corporate effectiveness as the formal structure of jobs, authority, technical and financial procedures.⁽¹⁸⁾ Before moving on to discuss the impact of culture on management and organisation, it is necessary to give a better understanding of the various definitions of the term culture, hence, it is the number one research obstacle in comparative management studies. The word culture is derived from Latin, *cultures* and *cults* which mean care,

cultivation, in fact, *cultra* occurs first in the composite form of *agricultura* ; agriculture, tilling, cultivation of the soil.⁽¹⁹⁾ There are many other definitions of the word culture. Culture is defined as "that complex whole which includes all the habits acquired by man as a member of society".⁽²⁰⁾ Sapir defined cultures as ".....culture is the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives".⁽²¹⁾ Boas defined it as "Culutre embraces all the manifestations of social habits in a community, the reactions of the individual as affected by the habits of the group in which he lives, and the products of human activities as determined by these habits."⁽²²⁾ Child and Kieser defined culture as "patterns of thought and manners which are widely shared". The boundaries of the social collectivity within which this sharing takes place are problematic so that it may make as much sense to refer to a class or regional culture as to a national culture.⁽²³⁾ Hofstede defined culture as the collective mental programming of the people in an environment.

Culture is not characteristic of individuals. It encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience.⁽²⁴⁾ It is that part of our conditions that we share with other members of our nation, region, or group but not with members of other nations, regions, or groups.⁽²⁵⁾ Such cultural programmes are difficult to change, unless one detaches the individual from his or her culture. Within a nation or part of it, culture changes only slowly.⁽²⁶⁾ We are all conditioned by cultural influences at many different levels - family, social group, geographical region, professional environment.⁽²⁷⁾ The naive assumption that management is the same or is becoming the same around the world, is not tenable in view of these demonstrated differences in national cultures.⁽²⁸⁾ So what applies in Japan cannot be successfully applied in

Europe. We have to realise that the differences between the people of different geographic areas are inescapable. There are differences in what people believe, what they think, what they seek to accomplish, and how they go about achieving their desires.⁽²⁹⁾ Foreign management methods and ideas were indiscriminately imported by European and Third World countries as part of the transfer of management ideas.⁽³⁰⁾ Yet, not all countries have been as successful as Japan in that adaptation of American management theories and practices. As a result economic losses, and human suffering were caused.⁽³¹⁾ For at least the last twenty years, the literature has yielded diverse position on the transferability of modern management principles into different cultures.⁽³²⁾ In the early 1960s Oberg proposed that cultural differences from one country to another are more significant than many writers now appear to recognise.⁽³³⁾

Bedeian stated that it is a well established fact that different cultures possess different organisational norms and behaviour standards and that they recognise these legitimate forms of influence.⁽³⁴⁾ In the United States, for example, culture and tradition have affected the manner in which top executives approach the problem of working women. They have affected personal systems, the attitude in behaviour of management and the aspiration and behaviour of women.⁽³⁵⁾ Having defined the word culture and its influence on management, the researcher moves on to the second problem facing comparative research which is the methodological difficulties and the difficulties in obtaining a representative sample. Many of the comparative research studies do not have samples that can be considered representative.

A third research problem is that studies reporting to have a culture free context, are actually national studies. When carrying out studies on French

and British Managers, for example, we do not only compare the impact of their cultures but also other factors such as their political and economic systems. The final problem with comparative research is the inaccurate translation of key terminology. For example the word "success" in American literature appears to mean individual success, it is not readily transferable to Japanese or Asian cultures. The word visa in America is used as a means of credit, while in Arab countries it means permission to enter another country. The successful man in Thailand may be one who looks after his family, while the successful person in North America achieves success through education, the accumulation of assets and corporate ladder climbing.

3.2 Cross Cultural Comparisons

Cross-cultural studies do need comparative data and surveys, despite their drawback and research problem. They do provide comparative data in a volume no other method can afford. The result of a unique survey of 116,000 IBM employees in 40 different countries carried out by Hofstede, a Dutch organisational behaviourist, questioned the assumption that management theories are universally applicable. Hofstede classified each of his 40 national samples according to four different cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity. Each variable probed an important question about the prevailing culture ⁽³⁶⁾ Hofstede's Four Dimensions for Cross-Cultural Comparison provide a good framework for analysing differences of values. They are all applicable to managing corporations in various locations. The four criterias which Hofstede labeled as dimensions are discussed below.⁽³⁷⁾

Power Distance Variable. How readily people accept the unequal

distribution of authority in organisations and institutions.⁽³⁸⁾ This dimension involves how society deals with the fact that people are not the same in both physical and intellectual capacities. All societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others. (See Figure 3.1) The degree of delegation of authority as well as the degree of authoritative leadership style do influence the level of power distance. His study shows the Philippines, Venezuela, India, France, Belgium as large power distance. Denmark, Israel and Austria score low on the scale of inequality. Hofstede also found that there is a relationship between power distance and collectivism. He found that countries like France, Italy, Belgium and Spain show a combination of large power distance plus individualism while other western countries share a combination of power distance and individualism. Moreover, poor countries were shown to be collectivist with larger power distance.

Uncertainty Avoidance. This second dimension is labelled as uncertainty avoidance dimension. This issue involves how society deals with the fact that time runs only one way; that is we are caught in the reality of the past, present and future and we have to live in uncertainty because the future is and will always remain uncertain and unknown. (See figure 3.2). In some countries people welcome each day as it comes. They accept the uncertainty and do not become disturbed by it. They will take risks rather easily. They do not work as hard as in other societies. They tend to show tolerance to opinions different from their own, hence, they do not feel threatened by them.⁽³⁹⁾ Societies that fall in this category are known as weak uncertainty avoidance. Weak uncertainty avoidance and small power distance are found in countries like Denmark, Sweden, Great Britain and Ireland while the Netherlands, US and Norway and other Anglo countries fall in the middle.

However, countries like Latin European (France, Belgium Italy and Spain), Latin American, Mediterranean countries such as Yugoslavia, Greece, Turkey, and Japan plus Korea show strong uncertainty avoidance and large power distance. Asian countries were shown to have large power distance and medium to weak uncertainty avoidance. German speaking countries, Israel and Finland were all found to be combining small power distance with medium to strong uncertainty avoidance.⁽⁴⁰⁾

Figure 3.1 The Power Distance Dimension

Small Power Distance	Large Power Distance
Inequality in society should be minimised.	There should be an order of inequality in this world in which everybody has a rightful place; high and low are protected by this order.
All people should be inter-dependent.	A few people should be independent; most should be dependent.
Hierarchy means an inequality of roles, established for convenience.	Hierarchy means existential inequality.
Superiors consider subordinates to be "people like me".	Superiors consider subordinates to be a different kind of people.
Superiors are accessible.	Superiors are inaccessible.
The use of power should be legitimate and is subject to the judgment as to whether it is good or evil.	Power is a basic fact of society that antedates good or evil. Its legitimacy is irrelevant.
All should have equal rights.	Power-holders are entitled to privileges.
Those in power should try to look less powerful than they are.	Those in power should try to look as powerful as possible.
The system is to blame.	The underdog is to blame.
The way to change a social system is to redistribute power.	The way to change a social system is to dethrone those in power.
People at various power levels feel less threatened and more prepared to trust people.	Other people are a potential threat to one's power and can rarely be trusted.
Latent harmony exists between the powerful and the powerless.	Latent conflict exists between the powerful and the powerless.
Cooperation among the powerless can be based on solidarity.	Cooperation among the powerless is difficult to attain because of their low-faith-in-people norm.

Source: Geert Hofstede, *Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?* *Organisational Dynamics*, Vol. 9, No. 1, Summer 1980, p.46.

Figure 3.2 The Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance
The uncertainty inherent in life is more easily accepted and each day is taken as it comes.	The uncertainty inherent in life is felt as a continuous threat that must be fought.
Ease and lower stress	Higher anxiety and stress
Time is free	Time is money.
Hard work, as such, is not a virtue.	There is an inner urge to work hard.
Aggressive behaviour is frowned upon.	Aggressive behaviour of self and others is accepted.
Less showing of emotions	More showing of emotions.
Conflict and competition can be contained on the level of fair play and used constructively.	Conflict and competition can unleash aggression and should therefore be avoided.
More acceptance of dissent is entailed.	A strong need for consensus is involved.
Deviation not considered threatening; greater tolerance shown.	Deviant persons and ideas are dangerous; intolerance holds sway.
The ambience is one of less nationalism.	Nationalism is pervasive.
More positive feelings toward younger people are seen.	Younger people are suspect.
There is more willingness to take risks in life.	There is great concern with security in life.
There should be as few rules as possible.	There is a need for written rules and regulations.
If rules cannot be kept, we should change them.	If rules cannot be kept, we are sinners and should repent.
Belief is placed in generalists and common sense.	Belief is placed in experts and their knowledge.
The authorities are there to serve the citizens.	Ordinary citizens are incompetent compared with the authorities.

Source: Geert Hofstede, *Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?* Organisational Dynamics, Vol. 9, No. 1, Summer 1980, p.47.

Individualism-Collectivism

This third dimension involves the relationship between one individual and his or her fellow individuals. Are people responsible for their own welfare within loosely knit social framework, or does the group look out for individuals in exchange for loyalty?⁽⁴¹⁾ (See Figure 3.3). In some societies the ties between individuals are very weak. In many cases people only care for their immediate families and not for the extended ones. This is caused by the large degree of freedom granted to individuals within that particular society. Conversely, ties between individuals in some societies are very strong. People are born into collectivities or in groups which may be their extended family, their tribe or even their village. Everybody is supposed to look after the interest of his or her ingroup and to have no opinion and belief other than the opinions and beliefs of their ingroup. In exchange, the ingroup will protect them when they are in trouble. This is caused by the small degree of freedom granted to individuals within that particular society. The societies that fall within the individualist dimension are loosely integrated while the societies that fall within the collectivist dimension are tightly integrated. Countries of the very individualistic societies include the US, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Canada, New Zealand and Australia. While the very collectivist are Colombia, Pakistan, Taiwan, Japan, India. Austria, and Spain fall in the middle of the individualism and collectivism. From Hofstede's findings, it appeared that wealthy countries are more individualistic and poor countries are more collectivist.

Figure 3.3 The Individualism -Collectivism Dimension

Collectivist	Individualist
In society people are born into extended families or clans who protect them in exchange for loyalty.	In society everybody is supposed to take care of himself/herself and his/her immediate family.
"We" consciousness holds sway.	"I" consciousness holds sway.
Identity is based in the social system.	Identity is based in the individual.
There is emotional dependence of individual on organisations and institutions.	There is emotional independence of individual from organisations or institutions.
The involvement with organisations is moral.	The involvement with organisations is self-interest.
The emphasis is on belonging to organisations; membership is the ideal.	The emphasis is on individual initiative and achievement; leadership is the ideal.
Private life is invaded by organisations and clans to which one belongs; opinions are predetermined.	Everybody has a right to a private life and opinion.
Expertise, order, duty and security are provided by organisation or clan.	Autonomy, variety, pleasure and individual financial security are sought in the system.
Friendships are predetermined by stable social relationships, but there is need for prestige within these relationships.	The need is for specific friendships.
Belief is placed in group decisions.	Belief is placed in individual decisions.
Value standards differ for in-groups and out-groups (particularism).	Value standards should apply to all (universalism).

Source: Geert Hofstede, Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories apply Abroad? Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9, No.1, Summer 1980, p.48

Masculinity/Femininity. How important are masculine attitudes versus feminine attitudes. Masculinity versus femininity dimension involves the division of roles between the sexes in society. (See Figure 3.4) All societies have to deal with the basic fact that one half of mankind is female

and the other half is male.⁽⁴²⁾ The only activities that are strictly determined by the sex of a person are those related to procreation.⁽⁴³⁾ Some societies associate rules to men only while others associate roles to women only as a social role rather than biological sex role division. The problem of masculine attitude was criticised by many researchers. Humphrey has stressed that one of the richest underutilised resources in America is the talents of its women.⁽⁴⁴⁾ In the US the percentage of female managers is still smaller than of men: 15 per cent of the male labour force now hold managerial jobs whereas only 6 per cent of females do.⁽⁴⁵⁾ However barely 1 per cent of top managers are women.⁽⁴⁶⁾ Jacklin has stated that "despite evidence of womens' managerial potential there appears to be persistent resistance to their participation in managerial careers".⁽⁴⁷⁾ However, what can be seen as a typical task for men or for women in one society can be seen as anomalous in other societies.

Societies can be classified in this regard on whether they try to minimise or maximise the social sex role division. Some societies, for example, make the sharp division between what men should and should not do. There is what is even known as feminine jobs and professions. On agreeing that being female was a disadvantage and not an advantage few companies saw the possibility of it being both.⁽⁴⁸⁾ They allow both men and women to take many different roles. However, a well known professor and writer of organisational behaviour, Israeli (1980), believes that male managers remain the gatekeepers to women's entry into the executive suite.⁽⁴⁹⁾ She pointed out, however, that "women are moving into previously male dominated roles and occupations. They are pursuing their ambitions across boundaries they have never before crossed".⁽⁵⁰⁾ Adler, a respected Canadian management scholar, believes the assumption that expatriate women are not

seen as local women is untrue and misleading.⁽⁵¹⁾ Expatriate women are normally viewed as “foreigners who happen to be women”. However, the norms which may apply to local Saudi women like staying at home and not working as managers may not necessarily apply to foreign females. This is especially true in the case in which the women are physically seen as different and distinct from the rest of the local population, for example, Western women in Japan ⁽⁵²⁾ It is believed, therefore, that in only a few countries such as Saudi Arabia, expatriate women do not feel at ease and face difficulties. However, it is argued that Saudi Arabia is not regarded as a perfect indicator of how other countries on the whole respond to foreign women.⁽⁵³⁾

The increase in the number of women in management is due to changes in the social, economic, technological, and perhaps most visibly the legal environment in North America⁽⁵⁴⁾ and as a result “participation of women in the domestic work force has been one of the most striking phenomena of modern American society”. Participation rates of women rose from 32 per cent in 1947 to 43 per cent in 1970, to 51 per cent in 1980.⁽⁵⁵⁾ The change in attitudes toward working women has been clear in the past years. Women have become more visible on boards of directors. The percentage of corporate boards having at least one female director has increased from 10.7 per cent in 1973 to 36.4 per cent in 1979.⁽⁵⁶⁾ Thal and Cateora (1979) believe that one of the reasons for having fewer women in International divisions is because there is no pipeline of trained women to draw from.⁽⁵⁷⁾

What is it like to be in a masculine or feminine society? In masculine societies, the traditional masculine social values permeate the whole society

even the way of thinking of women. These values include the importance of showing off, of performing, of achieving something visible, of making money, of "big is beautiful". In feminine societies, the dominant values for both men and women are those more traditionally associated with the feminine role: not showing off, putting relationships with people before money, providing the quality of life and the preservation of the environment, helping others, in particular the weak, and "small is beautiful". In masculine society, the public hero is the successful achiever, the superman. In a more feminine society, the public sympathy goes to the anti-hero, the underdog.⁽⁵⁸⁾ (See Figure 3.4). The most masculine societies, according to Hofstede, are the German speaking countries: Germany, Austria and Switzerland. Moderately masculine are a number of Latin countries such as Venezuela, Mexico and Italy. The most feminine societies include some Latin and Mediterranean countries like Yugoslavia, Chile, Portugal, Spain and France are moderately feminine. From this discussion we can come to the conclusion that the assumption that management is the same or is becoming the same around the world is no longer tenable.

To apply these dimensions in management particularly about leadership, models of organisation and motivation, we find that the most relevant dimensions for leadership are individualism and power distance. Hofstede's unique survey has shown the US to be in an extreme position on the individualism scale. US leadership theories are about leading individuals who seek their ultimate self-interest. For example, the word "duty" which implies obligation toward society and others does not appear at all in the US leadership theories.⁽⁵⁹⁾

Figure 3.4 The Masculinity Dimension

Feminine	Masculine
Men need not be assertive but can also assume nurturing	Men should be assertive. Women should give care or nourishment.
Sex roles in society are more fluid.	Sex roles in society are clearly differentiated.
There should be equality between the sexes.	Men should dominate in society.
Quality of life is important.	Performance is what counts.
You work in order to live.	You live in order to work.
People and environment are important.	Money and things are important.
Depend on each other is the ideal.	Independence is the ideal.
Service provides the motivation.	Ambition provides the drive.
One sympathizes with the unfortunate.	One admires the successful achiever.
Small and slow are beautiful.	Big and fast are beautiful.
Able to be worn by both sexes and having characteristics of both male and female forms.	Unnecessary display of wealth, and knowledge to impress or gain attention.

Source: Geert Hofstede, Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9, No.1, Summer 1980, p.49

Leadership in a collectivist society, like the Third World countries, is a group phenomenon. People in these countries are able to bring considerable loyalty to their jobs in return for protection. Individual subordinates are allowed to participate in the decision-making process, but these remain the leaders' decisions, and it is the leader who takes the initiative.

In power distance countries like the Third World, France and Belgium, the individual subordinates as a rule do not want to participate. Individuals expect the leader to lead autocratically, and in fact by their own behaviour

make it difficult for leaders to lead in other ways. There is very little participative leadership in France and Belgium. While subordinates in a group can still influence the leader as it is in all Asian Countries, in Israel, Sweden or Denmark, subordinates do not wait on their boss to tell them to take the initiative. Instead, subordinates will support forms of employees co-determination in which either individuals or groups can take the initiative towards management. In these cultures, there are no management prerogatives that are automatically accepted by the subordinates; management privileges in particular are much more easily accepted in US than in some of the very low power distance countries. (60)

When applying the four dimensions of national culture to an organisation, we find that the dominant underlying model of an organisation for the French is a pyramid, a hierarchical structure held together by the unity of command. The French usually refer the problem in the organisation to the next higher authority level. While the Germans suggest the setting of rules to resolve such problems in the future, the British tend to resolve problems through negotiations and the improvement of communication. Finally, when applying the four dimensions of national culture to motivation we find that the theories of motivation and the practices of motivating people can both be related to the individualism-collectivism dimension.

In the US the highest motivation is supposed to stem from the individuals need to fulfill their obligations toward themselves. Terms like "self actualisation" and "self respect" are found on the top of the list of motivations in the US. In a more collectivist society, however, people will try primarily to fulfill their obligations toward their ingroups, (61) while in countries like Japan and Germany for example, there is less willingness to

take risks. Security is the powerful motivator. People perform when they are offered security in return.

3.3 Summary

This chapter has given us a clear understanding of the term culture. Culture is defined as “the way in which a society lives including the relationships among values, roles, standards of behaviour”. This chapter has pointed out the four major research problems that face comparative management researchers. These problems include: the vague definition of the term culture; second, inaccurate translation of key terminology; third, difficulty in obtaining representative samples; fourth, difficulty in isolating cultural differences amid national, economic and political relations. This section of research has been helpful in clarifying the four major dimensions for cross-cultural comparison. It was found that these dimensions are applicable to managing corporations in various locations. The four dimensions are: power distance variable; second, uncertainty-avoidance; third, individualism-collectivism; fourth, masculinity-femininity. Finally, this chapter has pointed out that attitudes and beliefs about work vary with culture, and thus it is important to say that practice is usually wiser than theory, and if we see what effective organisations in different cultures have done, we will find that leaders of the adapting countries adapted management to their local conditions but in adapted form.. This chapter contains the major findings of similar studies. Such review is necessary in order to make contrasts and comparisons with the findings of this research.

CHAPTER 3

Endnotes

1. Joseph L. Massie, Management in an International Context. (New York: Harper and Row, 1972), p.4.
2. See Peter Drucker. Management: Tasks and Responsibilities, (New York: Harpers Row, 1973).
2. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practices and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies, (Fall, 1983) p.88.
4. Lane Kelly, *et al.* Effect of Culture on Management Attitudes: A Three Cultural Test, Journal of International Business Studies, (Summer, 1987), p.17.
5. Geert Hofstede, *op cit.*, p.75.
6. Lane Kelly and Reginald Worthley, The Role of Culture in Comparative Management: Across Cultural Perspectives. Academy of Management Journal, 1981 Vol.24, No. 1 (1981) p.168.
7. Nancy J. Adler, Cross Cultural Management Issues to be Faced. International Studies of Management Behaviour and Organisation - 8 (1-2): 7-45.
8. Lane Kelly *et al*, *op cit.*, p.164.
9. Geert Hofstede, *op cit.*, p.89.
10. Winston Oberg, Cross Cultural Perspectives on Management Principles. Academy of Management Journal, 6, No.21 (1963), pp.129-130.
11. *Ibid.*, p.130.
12. Lane Kelly and Reginald Worthley, *op cit.*, p.164.

13. Geert Hofstede, *op cit.*, p.75-77.
14. Ibid., p.75.
15. Lane Kelly and Reginald Worthley, *op cit.*, p.164.
16. Ibid., p.76.
17. Raymond Williams, Keywords, (1976), p.76.
18. P. Amsa, Organisational Culture and Work Group Behaviour: An Empirical Study, Journal of Management Studies, 23 - 3, (May 1986), p.347.
19. Montagu, Culture, (1986), p.3.
20. See Benedict in William M. Evans, Culture and Organisational Systems, Organisational Administration Science, 4. (1975), p.3.
21. Sapir in William M. Evans, *op cit.*, p.3.
22. Boas in William M. Evans, *op cit.*, p.3.
23. J. Child and A. Keiser. Contrast in British and West German Management Practice: Are Recipes for Success Culture Bound? Paper presented at the conference on Cross Cultural Studies on Organisation Functioning, Hawaii, (1977) p.2.
24. Geert Hofstede, Motivation, Leadership and Organisation. Do American Theories Apply Abroad? Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9, No.1 (Summer 1980), p.34.
25. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practices and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies (Fall, 1983), p.76.
26. Ibid.
27. Ibid., p.73.
28. Ibid., p.85.
29. Ted R. Branner *et al.* . Overseas Management (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1965), p.3.

30. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practice and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies, (Fall, 1983), p.76.
31. Ibid., p.89.
32. Lane Kelly and Reginald Worthley, *op cit.*, p.164.
33. Ibid., p.165.
34. Ibid., p.165.
35. Nancy L. Thal and Philip R. Cateorn. Opportunities for Women in International Business, Business Horizon, No.1 (December 1979), p. 22.
36. Geert Hofstede, Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9, No.1 (Summer, 1980), pp.54-56.
37. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practices and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies (Fall, 1983), p.83.
38. Ibid.
39. Ibid.,
40. Geert Hofstede, Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9., No.1 (Summer 1980), p.55.
41. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.704.
42. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practices and Theories, Journal of International Buisness Studies (Fall, 1983), p.83.
43. Ibid.
44. Hubert H. Humphrey as quoted by J.J. Famulan "Women at the Top: The Record, the Obstacle, the Outlook". Management Review,

(August 1967), p.55.

45. Linda K. Brown, The Woman Manager in the United States: A Research Analysis and Bibliography Business and Professional Women Foundation, (Washington DC, 1981), p.14.
46. Ibid., p.15.
47. C.N. Jacklin *et al* Sex Differences and Their Implications for Management in F.E. Gordon and M.H. Strober (Eds.), Bringing Women into Management, (New York: McGraw Hill, 1975), pp.23-38.
48. Nancy Adler, Expecting International Success: Female Managers Overseas. Columbia Journal of World Business, (Fall 1984), p.83.
49. Dafna N. Israeli *et al* . Women Executives in MNC Subsidiaries, California Management Review, Vol. 1, No. 1 (Fall 1980), p.53.
50. Ibid.
51. Nancy J. Adler, Women in International Management, California Management Review No. 4, (Summer 1984), p.86.
52. Ibid.
53. Ibid.
54. Ibid., pp.78-89.
55. Linda K. Brown, *op cit.*, p.14; R.E. Smith (Ed.) The Subtle Revolution: Women at Work, (Washington DC The Urban Insitute 1979) pp.xii.
56. Ferry Korn, International Boards of Directors Annual Study. First-seventh New York, NY. (1973-1979).
57. Nancy L. Thal and Philip R. Cateora, Opportunities for Women in International Business, Business Horizon, No.6 (December 1979), p.27.

58. Geert Hofstede, The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practice and Theories, Journal of International Business Studies (Fall, 1983) p.85.
59. Ibid.
60. Ibid., p.87.
61. Ibid., p.88.

CHAPTER 4

ARAB MANAGEMENT: AN OVERVIEW

"Culture regulates our lives at every turn. From the moment we are born until we die. There is constant conscious and unconscious pressure upon us to follow certain types of behaviour that other men have created for us". (1)

4.1 Introduction

The Arab World consists of 21 independent States adding to them the State of Palestine which was recently proclaimed in Algeria. All Arab population is located in four different major areas. These areas are North Africa, the Nile Valley and the African Horn, the Arab Peninsula, and the Gulf region. This is in addition to the Palestinian people in the West Bank and Gaza Strip. The main aim of this chapter is to shed light on the various major studies which were carried out on Arab management. Each of the major studies will be identified and examined, and some comparison of the various major findings will be drawn later on in the analysis. The main elements that are generally used in the definition of an Arab will also be identified and discussed. It is believed that this chapter will enhance the reader's understanding of the major findings of the study which will be discussed in detail under later headings.

4.2 Who is an Arab?

When talking about the Arab management we do not necessarily mean the Muslim managers. One of the great widely spread misconceptions is that an Arab is automatically a Muslim, and that all Muslim countries are Arab nations. To clear up these misconceptions, it is necessary to point out that not all Arabs are Muslims and not all Muslims are Arabs.⁽²⁾ For example,

Iran, Turkey and Pakistan are all Muslim countries but none of them is an Arab nation. One of the global definitions of the term Arab is given by Lewis (1981) who pointed out that an Arab is “.....one who regards the Arabic speaking people as a nation or group of sister nations in the European sense, united by a common territory, language and culture and a common aspiration to political independence”.⁽³⁾ Muna (1980) in his definition of an Arab pointed to three major commonalities: language, religion, and history. This definition which is only one of many is designed to emphasise some conceptual boundary. To examine further the meaning of an Arab, let us discuss the main elements which are believed to be the main factors used in identifying an Arab.

4.2.1 Language

The Arabic language is the official language in all Arab countries. Indeed, Arabic is considered by many as the single determinant factor of an Arab. An Arab is defined solely on the basis of the Arabic language. Though again, one should be careful not to consider any person who learned Arabic as a second language to be an Arab.

The Arabic language has been defined by Fleming (1981) as “..... a flowing, poetic language. Gestures, shouting, touching, and emotions are an indispensable part of the communication process. It often seems, and perhaps it is true, that two or more Arabs can communicate nicely with everyone talking at the same time”.⁽⁴⁾

To an Arab, the Arabic language is a thing of beauty, an art rather than a cold functional tool for communication.⁽⁵⁾ The bias towards the qualitative has produced a usage where art form can be more important than

precision and this feature in itself makes accurate translation difficult.⁽⁶⁾

The Arabic language is the language of Quran. It is difficult for Westerners to learn because it is a language of another culture and word for word translation does not convey the same meaning especially when it crosses the cultural boundary.

For a Westerner to learn Arabic he will be confronted with a language in which normally only the vowels are written. In the Arabic language words are based on consonants which form roots, and the meaning of a word changes with the change in the sound around the consonants. For example, the word for "lesson" is *Dars* while the word for "school" is *Madrassa* - the common root for these words of related meaning is *Madaris*. The word for "book" is *Kitab* while the Arabic word for "office" is *Maktab* - the common root for these words is *Kutub*.

Another difficulty in learning the Arabic language is that it contains a number of "throaty" sounds which most learners and particularly Westerners find difficulty. The script, however, can be, and is, used in other languages such as Farsi, the language in Iran.

The final feature of the Arabic language is that it is written from right to left, and from top down like Hebrew, the language of the Jewish people.

4.2.2 Religion

Islam is the second major determinant of an Arab. However, a Christian can be an Arab, but Islam is the major religion in all Arab countries. The meaning as well as the main obligations (pillars) of Islam will be fully discussed in a subsequent chapter and under separate headings.

Islam is, however, a way of life and not merely a religion.⁽⁷⁾ Therefore, a Christian manager living with Muslim Arabs will most likely be influenced by the Islamic environment. The Islamic law (Sharia) is applied in some Arab countries but at a varying degrees. The Sharia is defined as the sacred law of Islam and is largely based on the Quran. It covers virtually all aspects of Arab life - religion, private, public, social, political, and economic. However, there are three sources that contribute to Sharia:

- Sunna - sayings and practices of the prophet Muhammad.
The record of an action or a saying of the prophet Muhammad became technically known as "Hadith".
- Giyas - (Measurement or analogical reasoning) is based on jurists reasoning to deal with various cases.
- Ijma - (Agreement or consensus). The consensus of opinions of experienced jurists on various subjects.

4.2.3. History

History is considered to be the third major element which is used in defining an Arab. History is included because of its vital impact on the Arabs.

The Arab culture has been evolving continuously over a long period of time. Much of the Arab culture stems from the Arabian peninsula. Lewis (1981) pointed out that "The Arabs of history would thus be the undifferentiated residue after the great invasion of ancient history had taken place".⁽⁸⁾

Beginning in the 7th century it was the turn of the Arabs to migrate in force under the banner of Islam. Islam is the newest of the three great religions after Judaism and Christianity.

The importance of history is in the heart of all Arabs. Indeed, when an Arab is asked about his nationality he will go on to describe the Arab history. Such a view is supported by Hourani (1962) who wrote:

“.....a full definition of what is meant by Arab Nations would include also a reference to a historic process: to a certain episode in history in which the Arab played a leading part, which was important not only for them but for the whole world, and in virtue of which indeed they could claim to have been something in human history.”
(Hourani emphasis, p.2).

This concludes the discussion of the main elements which constitute an Arab. In the following section the researcher aims to point out some of the major studies on Arab management. These studies will be reviewed, discussed and contrasted where appropriate.

4.3 Major Studies on Arab Management

In the management literature, there are quite a few studies on Arab management. Some of these studies were carried out on management in Saudi Arabia, others on management in Libya, while others are related to management in Iraq, Lebanon, Kuwait, Yemen and the United Arab Emirates. Of these , the following major studies were found to be relevant.

Abbas Ali and Paul Swiercz: The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabi, 1985.

Mooyad Sulieman: Senior Managers in the Iraqi Society - Their Background and Attitude, 1984.

Farid A. Muna: The Arab Executives, 1980.

M.K. Badawy: Styles of Middle Eastern Managers, 1980.

Massound El-Baruni: **Personal Value Systems of Libyan Managers:
An Exploratory Study**, 1980.

Changiz Pezeshkpur: **Challenges to Management in the Arab World**,
1978.

4.4 Review of Major Studies

The following section will be dedicated to the discussion of the various studies on Arab management. Each will be discussed in terms of its objectives and findings.

Ali and Swiercz: **The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia**, 1986.

In this study, the authors aimed to explore the relationship between managerial decision styles and work satisfaction in a developing country like Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia was targeted for the study because of its unique characteristic of being both committed to rapid industrialisation and because of its adherence to the Arabic and Islamic cultures.

In order to achieve the targeted objectives the researchers selected a convenient sample of 140 managers from three major Saudi cities: Riyadh, Al-Huse, and Dammam. The subjects chosen were employed in different companies in both public and private sectors.

The data was collected by using questionnaires which were personally distributed by the researchers and collected later by their research assistants.

Out of the 140 surveys distributed only 83 usable questionnaires were returned to the researchers.

The main findings of the Ali and Swiercz study are:⁽⁹⁾

- First: A participative decision making style was reported by the subjects who were found to be highly satisfied with people in their work group.
- Second: Autocratic managers scored significantly lower on satisfaction with people in their work group.
- Third: The consultative decision style was most predominant. 39 per cent of the managers surveyed reported using this style.
- Fourth: Contrary to the predicted hypothesis, the researchers found that the consultative managers were not satisfied with their supervisors, while it was found that the consultative Saudi manager was less satisfied with his organisation. Only the second part of this hypothesis was supported by the findings. The findings also indicated that the pseudo-consultative, participative and delegative managers tend to be highly satisfied with their supervisors.
- Fifth: The results indicated that 28 per cent of the total managers surveyed preferred the pseudo-consultative style.
- Sixth: The final finding indicated that the least preferred decision style by Saudi Managers was the delegative style which scored only 2 per cent.

From these findings, it is evident that there is a strong correlation between job satisfaction and satisfaction with persons in work group organisation, promotion and chance for advancement. However, these findings are contrary to the findings of Badawy (1980) where they found that unlike Badawy, participation management is not necessarily alien to Middle Eastern cultures.

The overall findings indicate that despite the fact that the Saudi managers are largely influenced by cultural values and norms, they also share some similarity in their approach and psychological aspects to that of managers of other cultures.⁽¹⁰⁾

El-Baruni, M.: Personal Value System of Libyan Managers: An Exploratory Study, 1980.

Another study on Arab managers which is of equal importance is carried out by El-Baruni, 1980 which aimed:⁽¹¹⁾

- First: To explore the present value system of Libyan managers.
- Second: To determine if the value system held by managers is associated with certain selected organisational and behavioural variables.
- Third: To draw some comparisons between personal value systems of US managers, and personal values systems of Libyan managers.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher gathered his data using a survey method from a randomly selected sample of 189 Libyan managers from both sectors and in different sizes of organisations.

The study is believed to be beneficial in order to give an explanation of the motivational behaviour of the individual, group and organisation, therefore, providing an evidential base to the existing literature on human values as they relate to Libyan organisations.

The data indicated the following findings:⁽¹²⁾

1. On average Libyan managers have values indicating high concern for social welfare and low concern for profit maximization and industrial leadership.

2. Libyan managers working in large firms and institutions earn more than managers working in smaller ones.
3. Libyan managers appear to be more pragmatic than moralistic or effect oriented. Of the managers interviewed, 58 per cent have a pragmatic orientation, and 23.4 per cent have a moralistic orientation, and 6.4 per cent have an effect orientation, 12.2 per cent have a mixed value orientation.
4. Regarding the relationship between the Libyan managers value orientation and the region in which they work, the findings indicated that these two variables are not related.
5. The findings indicated that the most successful Libyan managers tend to work for larger companies (200 and more employees).
6. The results for personal values and job satisfaction of Libyan managers indicate that there is no significant relationship between Libyan managers value orientation and their job satisfaction score
7. For personal values and the success of the managers, the findings indicate that there is no significant relationship between the personal value systems and managerial success of Libyan managers. This finding is contrary to the researcher's expectation and to England's findings. Concerning American managers, England asserted that there is a relationship between value patterns and success.
8. The final finding indicates that job satisfaction is unrelated to the majority of personal and organisational variables such as company type, managerial experience, age, field of study etc. The only variable which was found to be related to job satisfaction is that of "function" for example, type of departmental activity.

These findings, therefore, indicated it was evident that Arabian Managers

had culturally influenced managerial style.

Badawy, M.: Styles of Mid-eastern Managers, 1980.

This study was bounded by the results of an empirical investigation conducted on Mid-eastern Managers from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Abu Dhabi, Bahrain, Oman and the United Arab Emirates.(13)

The subjects chosen for the study were all full time middle managers working for companies in various types of businesses such as chemical, petroleum and transport.

A total number of 295 questionnaires were distributed, and only 251 questionnaires were returned to the researcher of which only 248 were usable.

The main objectives of the study were to measure mid-eastern managers attitudes and philosophies, and to measure their need satisfaction and deficiencies. For the purpose of this study, questionnaires by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter were all used.

The main findings of the study include:(14)

First: the data indicated that Mid-eastern managers disagreed with the statement that "the superior's authority over his subordinates is primarily economic." The managers took a modern approach to an individual's capacity for leadership.

Second: The executives had an equally moderate attitude towards the internal control that should be exercised by managers over employees but took a classical approach to participation. The overall general consensus was that subordinates should be given

direction and specific information in relation to their immediate jobs.

Third: Concerning individual and organisation variables, Badawy's (1980) findings indicated:

The 30 to 39 year old groups tended to take a more democratic view of capacity for leadership than the younger or older groups. However, a more democratic attitude towards sharing objectives and information with subordinates was adopted by the younger (25-34) than the older groups (35-44). As for participation in goal setting this function was mostly adopted by the oldest group (40-49) followed by the youngest group (25-29) with the two middle groups (30-39) coming somewhere in between.

Fourth: Regarding tenure, the findings indicated a strong connection between age and the length of service as indicated by the subjects. As a result, a democratic attitude towards subordinates was most favoured by managers with five to nine years experience. Only managers with shorter experiences favoured a classical, autocratic attitude.

The findings for sharing information and objectives with subordinates indicated that only managers with ten to nineteen years of experience did not display a democratic attitude.

Fifth: Referring to organisational size, the findings indicated that the smaller the size of the organisation, the more democratic the managers attitude. However, managers working for medium size organisations (100 - 499 employees) scored the most for democratic attitude amongst all managers.

Sixth: For managers need satisfaction and importance the findings

indicated that managers were highly dissatisfied with the
 “opportunity to participate in setting goals”.

For the managers surveyed, self-actualisation seemed to be the most important need. This was followed by social needs, then esteem, security and autonomy. Despite being the most important need for the Mid-eastern managers interviewed, self-actualisation was found to be the second most dissatisfied need, after autonomy, which was found to be the least satisfied and the least important need.

These are some of the major findings of Badawy (1980). From these findings it was very clear that Mid-eastern executives in this particular study take a democratic approach to the individual capacity for leadership. This finding stems from the Arabian traditions which place a high value on the man as the leader of the family and as the bread winner. It is also believed that the Arab tradition of being a close-knit society, has contributed to the classical attitude to participation of information and objectives with subordinates.⁽¹⁵⁾

The findings of this study lend support to the conclusion that culture does play a great role in the attitudes of managers and their leadership styles. Therefore, these findings are not in line with the different findings in literature which suggest that there is similarity in leadership styles across the different cultures.

Muna, F.: The Arab Executives, 1980.

A very well known study which has been carried out on the Arab executives is that of Muna (1980). The study investigated 52 Arab managers from 6 different Arab countries: Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia,

and the United Arab Emirates.

The main objectives of the study were to sketch a portrait of the Arab executives against the background of a changing social landscape, and to examine the influence of the environment on social behaviour and on the attitudes of the Arab executives. Muna in his semi-structured interviews meant to describe what the Arab executives think, feel and do within their current Arab environments and under the prevailing social pressures.

The main findings of Muna's study were:⁽¹⁶⁾

- First: The findings indicated that Arab managers are influenced by many types of pressures. Many of the pressures were from families, friends, relatives and from the wider community. These pressures influenced the managers thinking, their decision making process, their behaviour and practice. The findings of the study revealed that the environment has a great influence on the executives thinking and behaviour.
- Second: Regarding the Arab executives and the decision making style, the study showed that 55 per cent of the executives use the consultative style. Muna's findings indicated that subordinates are consulted in the decision making despite the degree of their influence.
- Third: The study revealed that there is a strong incentive for the Arab executive to rely upon family and friendship ties in managing his business. The use of personal family ties and connection is not only widespread in the Arabian Society, but was found to be inevitable in carrying out business. Muna found that connections and ties were necessary in order to proceed faster.
- Fourth: The findings from the data indicated that the age of Arab

managers and their education do have a significant effect on their decision making style. The study has revealed that the older the Arab manager is the more autocratic he tends to be. The study also indicated that the more educated the Arab manager, the more autocratic he will be. Muna found that managers without university education are more democratic with their subordinates than those with university education.

Fifth: Finally, Muna's study demonstrated Arab executives as being more person-oriented than task-oriented. Arab managers engage in activities like the shaking of hands and drinking of refreshments when conducting meetings. They view this habit as one way of establishing good ties with subordinates and fellow workers.

This last finding is supported by Rand "Learning to do Business in the Middle East: The First Impressions of Recent American Visitors in Saudi Arabia and Jordan", where he pointed out that:

"the US visitors were served refreshments during their meeting with the Mayor of the Jordanian city of Al-Agaba. The researcher pointed out that a government employee appeared holding a silver tray, a pot of coffee and only one cup. The employee began serving across from the Americans, filled the cup and offered it to each man in turn, refilling as required. Everyone drank, for it is polite to at least taste anything offered".⁽¹⁷⁾

Despite all Muna's interesting findings, the study did not go without a few drawbacks. The study does not represent all the Arab countries. It is clear from the study that the environment does influence the attitudes, behaviour

and practice of managers within that environment, so it would have been wise if Muna had covered all Arab countries before he came to generalise on the Arab executives. Hence, the practices of managers varies with the change of cultures. Muna did not tell us how managers spend their day and the activities they carry out, nor did he tell us anything about the mobility and career patterns of managers. It would have been wise also if Muna had compared the practices and attitudes of the Arab executives with those of their counterparts in developed countries.

Sulieman, M.: Senior Managers in Iraqi Society: Their Background and Attitude (1984).

This study was carried out on forty four Iraqi senior managers. The objectives of Sulieman's study were to find out the principal characteristics of Iraqi top managers from the point of view of their personal characteristics such as age, place of birth, and their level of education. Second, to show their career patterns, Third, to draw some comparisons between the characteristics of these managers and of managers working in Western countries. Fourthly, to find out the type of interrelationships that exist between these characteristics and discover how they differ with the size of the company, the type of ownership and the place of birth of the managers. Fifth, to find out how Iraqi managers spend their time and the activities in which they are involved and to find out the main pressures that face the Iraqi senior managers and sixth to describe the decision making style commonly used by these managers.

Sulieman's main findings include:(18)

First: Managers spend an average of 10 working hours daily with paper work activity taking most public sector managers' time.

- Second: Iraqi managers devote less time to planning and organising than to personal activities.
- Third: All Iraqi managers studied confirmed that communication is the number one activity that takes the bulk of their time.
- Four: Sulieman's study also revealed that public sector managers devoted less time for senior superior contacts than their private sector counterparts.

Pezeshkpur, C.: Challenges to Management in the Arab World, 1979.

The main purpose of this study was to give a clear picture of Arab management in order to pave the way for foreign executives of international and multinational firms to help improve their management policies and strategies in the Middle East. In his study, Pezeshkpur, a business and a financial writer, touched on various issues. He talked about the Middle Eastern manager's personality, aspirations, personal status, contentment with the *status quo*, opinions vs facts, mistrust vs trust, family structure, groups and group membership, loyalty, and authority vs accountability. Each of these topics will be presented and discussed from the point of view of Pezeshkpur.⁽¹⁹⁾

- The Arab as an individual. At the individual level, the author has indicated that the Middle Easterner is a religious person, who normally recognises and worships God through his religion, Islam, as the principal concern of his life. Unlike the American executive, for example, who has a tendency to categorise situations according to individual circumstances despite his / her religious orientation.
- Personal Aspirations. The author indicated that the Arabs in general have a tendency to believe that their destiny is dependent on the will of

God, therefore it is not worth it for an Arab to seek and work in order to fulfill his personal goals and desires. Instead an Arab prays for them to happen or day dreams about them.

- **Personal Status.** The status of the individual Arab in his society is solely determined by his family position, reputation and the extent of his social ties and connections. The author believes that the Arab's social ties and connections are more important to him than his / her own achievement. Therefore, it is believed that the Arab's success is heavily dependent on his social success.
- **Contentment With the *Status Quo* .** Pezeshkpur indicated that Middle Easterners are generally content with events as they are and with their own way of doing things because of their seclusion from other cultures. Therefore, new changes and initiatives are not always welcomed unlike the Americans, for example, who are always receptive to new ideas, information, and initiatives.
- **Opinions vs Facts.** The author has indicated that the Arabs normally throw in their opinions in any discussion in which they are present whether they have any knowledge of the subject under discussion or not. Therefore he believes that an Arab always acts as if he knows everything so as not to be accused of being naive and lacking in knowledge.
- **Mistrust vs Trust.** Middle Easterners are predisposed to mistrust others on several accounts. A Middle Easterner is believed to be guided more by his emotional feelings than by cool, calculated and

rational decisions. From the study it was pointed out that the Arabs are generally passionate and are sometimes forced into action through appeals to their emotions and not because of their reasonable thinking. The second reason for the Arabs feeling of mistrust is because of the state of transformation that is taking place in many of the Arab cultures and societies. People in transitional societies can take almost nothing for granted. In their erratically changing world, every relationship rests upon uncertain foundations.⁽²⁰⁾

- The family structure. The author believes that Arab families are very influenced by Islam, with the father being responsible for the protection of the family. In return, an Arab father has to be treated with respect and regard by all members of his family. He also expects to be treated as the one who has control over the domain. Everyone in the family is then expected to be loyal to him.
- The group. Pezeshkpur indicated that voluntary teamwork has no grounds in Arab cultures. Therefore, effective and viable groups are difficult to find in Arab societies. The author attributes such behaviour to the Arabs strong family ties, where an individual is very much influenced by his family norms. The author went even further to conclude that one of the main characteristics of the Arab social gathering is that Arabs are never serious, and usually avoid controversial issues. In his study, the author pointed out that most of the Arabs verbal interactions are made of jokes, trivialities and pleasantries.
- Loyalty. Administrators in the Middle East tend to superimpose their

personalities on the organisation and as a result, when deciding who to hire from among many applicants for vacancies in their businesses, the Arab manager usually pays more attention to the candidate who will demonstrate complete loyalty to his superior. Pezeshkpur went on to conclude that to an Arab loyalty has greater weight than competence.

- **Authority vs Accountability.** According to Pezeshkpur, the Middle Easterners do not delegate authority. Therefore, delegation of authority is alien to Middle Eastern organisations and culture.
- **Members vs Rules.** According to the author, rules and procedures in the Arab organisation are normally flexible and transitory. It is even believed that rules and procedures change with the change of bosses. Pezeshkpur went even further to conclude that in the Arab working organisations, rules and regulations change with the variations in the moods of the bosses.
- **Group Leadership.** According to the author, an effective group leader in the Arab World is dominant and overpowering. Arab leaders are therefore very temperamental. They get angry very easily. The author even believed that Arab managers' personalities cannot be separated from the issues, unlike the American culture, for example, where it is possible to separate issues from personalities and in fact such separation is recommended. The Americans therefore believe that the separation of personalities from the issues will help resolve the issue and will make it smoother and less complicated.

- **Group Membership.** One's social standing in the Arab World and culture is a major determinant for joining groups. In the Arab World, group membership is not indiscriminantly open to the public. Therefore, when selecting a group or a professional body, Arabs usually select the one which offers them most opportunities for enhancing and elevating their social standing and prestige.

This concludes Pezeshkpur's (1978) discussion of management in the Arab World. However, it is believed that the author was not objective in some of his remarks, and this can be understood in light of the timing and date in which the study was made, and also in the light of the absence of figures and numbers which enable any study as giving an incomplete picture. Therefore, the questions should be asked: how did the author come to generalisation? What are the scientific bases for his conclusions and implications? Some of the author's findings were in contrast with the findings of other researchers like Muna (1980) for example, who found that Arabs are not fatalistic. In his study on executives in many Arab countries, Muna found that the Arab executives like others all over the world, were future orientated, rational in their thinking and deliberators, and they attempt to control and prevent adverse future events.⁽²¹⁾ Unlike Pezeshkpur, who indicated that an Arab manager usually prays for his goals and desires to be achieved, and does not work in order to achieve them.⁽²²⁾

These are the major findings of several studies on Arab management. Of course, there are other studies which were consulted and reviewed by researchers like Kassem and Al-Modaifer (1987) who found that Saudis in comparison to Americans are high on power distance and uncertainty avoidance, and low on individualism, masculine values and modernism.⁽²³⁾ Zahra (1980) argued that Egyptians are fatalistic. Zahra also argued

that in the Egyptian culture, concepts such as time, discipline, organisation, and planning are not appreciated by the Egyptian people.⁽²⁴⁾ Askar (1979) argued that Egyptian managers are usually moralistic and therefore put a lot of emphasis on prestige, power, dignity, and influence.⁽²⁵⁾ Also Murrell (1979) argued that Egyptian managers have a bias against the function of planning and have disregard for education and initiative.⁽²⁶⁾

4.5 Summary

This chapter has been important in providing us with a wider picture of management and its practice in the Arab World. From this chapter it was evident that management varies with the culture in which it exists. The results of these various studies lent strong support for more cross cultural research especially in defining the nature of the Arabian culture and its influence on managers and their behaviour. The chapter was also beneficial in presenting major determinant factors which are used in defining an Arab, therefore, minimising all chances of ambiguity and misunderstanding as to who is an Arab. From the discussion it was found that Arabs usually share these commonalities: language, religion, and history.⁽²⁷⁾ Even though the Arab culture is not homogenous.

CHAPTER 4

Endnotes

1. Kluckhohn, Clyde. The Concept of Culture in Kluckhohn, Richard (Ed.) Culture and Behaviour (New York: The Free Press, 1962), p.26.
2. M. Sami Kassem *et al.* Strategic Management and Service in the Arab Gulf States. (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter and Co. 1981), p.12.
3. Bernard B. Lewis, The Arabs in History, (London: Macmillan, 1981), p. 17.
4. Quentin W. Fleming, A Guide to Doing Business on the Arabian Peninsula (New York: Amacom, 1981), p. 33.
5. John Walter Martyr, Cultural Discontinuities and the Transfer of Management Philosophies and Practices with particular reference to Great Britain and the Arab Countries of the Arabian Gulf and Saudi Arabia, unpublished Master Thesis, (Brunel University, 1985), p.40.
6. Ibid.
7. Hitti (1971a) Islam: a Way of Life. Van Nicuwenhuijze (1971) Sociology of the Middle East Among Many Others.
8. Bernard B. Lewis, *op cit.*, p. 23.
9. Abbas Ali and Paul M. Swiercz, The relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. In Erdner Kaynak (Ed). International Business in the Middle East (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter and Co., 1985), pp. 136-149.
10. Ibid., p. 148
11. Massoud Y. El-Baruni, Personal Value System of Libyan Managers: An Exploratory Study, unpublished PhD Thesis (Saint Louis

University, 1980), p.4.

12. Ibid., pp. 189-212.
13. M.K. Badawy, Styles of Mideastern Managers, California Management Review, Vol. XXII, No. 2, (Spring 1980), p.51.
14. Ibid., pp. 51-58.
15. Ibid., p.55.
16. Farid A. Muna *op cit.*, , pp. 113-124.
17. Edward J. Rand, Learning to do Business in the Middle East: The First Impressions of a Recent American Visitor in Saudi Arabia and Jordan, The Conference Board, February, 2nd Edition, Nov. 13, 1976, p. 49.
18. Moayad Sulieman, Senior Managers in Iraqi Society: Their Background and Attitude, unpublished PhD Thesis, Glasgow University, 1984.
19. Changiz Pezeshkpur, Challenges to Management in the Arab World, Business Horizon, (August 1978), pp. 47-55.
20. Lucian W. Pye, Politics, Personality and Nation Building: Burma's Search for Identity (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1962), pp.54-55.
21. Farid A. Muna, *op cit.* , p. 98.
22. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p. 48.
23. M. Sami Kassem *et al* , *op cit.* , p. 18.
24. S.A. Zahra, Egyptian Management at the Cross Roads, Management International Review, Vol. 20, 1980, p.3.
25. Samir A. Askar, Personal Value Systems of Egyptian Managers, unpublished PhD Thesis, (Mississippi: Mississippi State University, 1979), p. vii.
26. Kennneth L. Murrel, A Cultural Analysis of the Egyptian Management

Environment, (1979) in Philip Harris and Gerard Mechin (Eds.)
Innovation in Global Consultation, Washington DC International
Consultants Foundation, pp. 105-119.

27. Farid A. Muna, *op cit.*, p. 5.

CHAPTER 5

THE WEST BANK: GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

“The West Bank is part of a country and not a financial institution”.

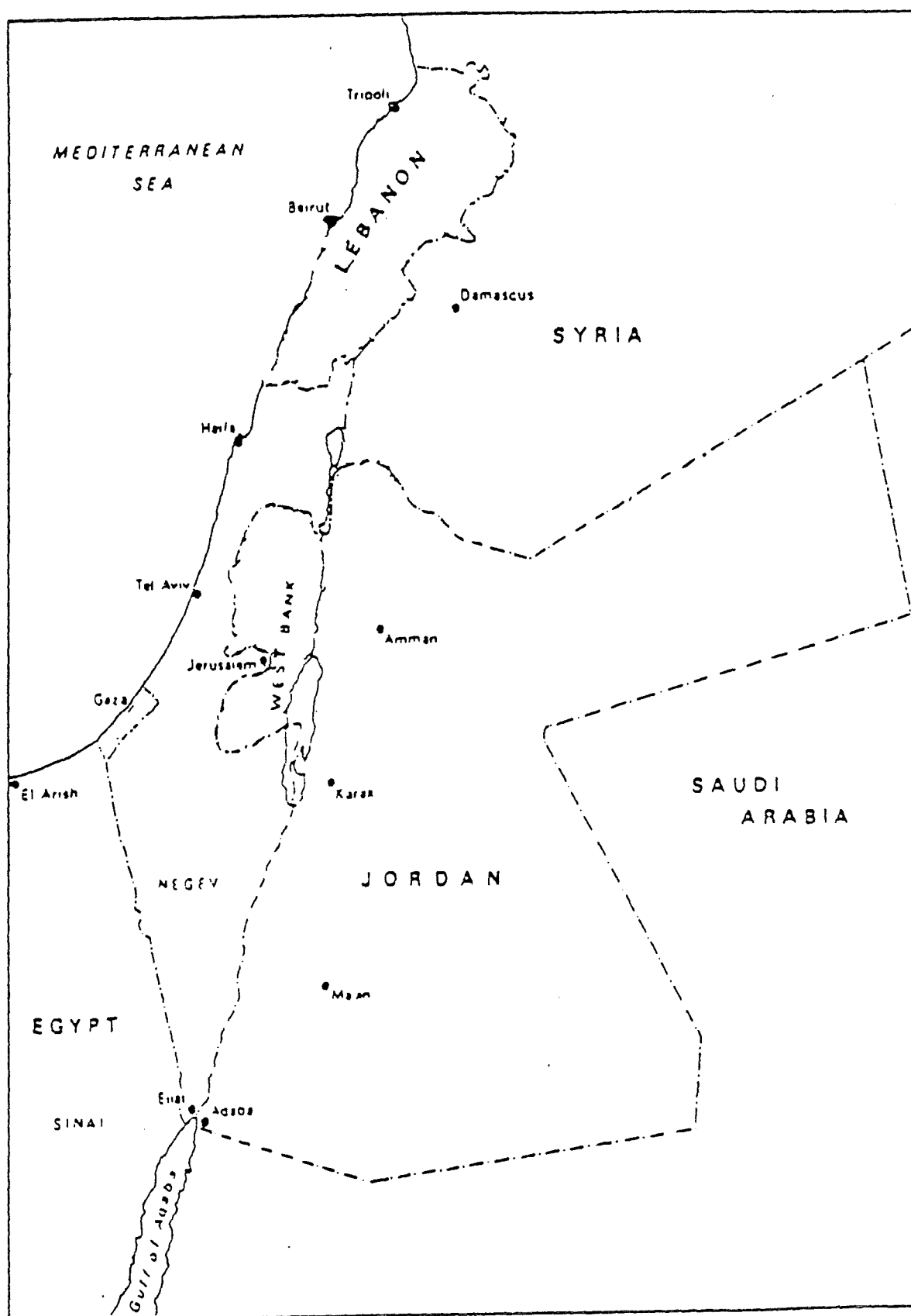
Numbers and figures alone, without prior knowledge of the atmosphere that created them gives at best an incomplete picture.⁽¹⁾

5.1 Introduction

When carrying out studies about managers, we do not only compare the importance of their cultures but also other factors such as their political and economic system. The significance of studying major environmental factors when conducting social research studies has long been recognised. With all this in mind the researcher in this chapter aims to present a complete picture of the geography and history of the West Bank. In this chapter a review of the West Bank Palestinian population as well as the recent political developments will also be presented. The researcher believes that such an introduction will help enhance the readers understanding of the area and is necessary so as a better understanding of the survey results will be obtained.

5.2 Historical Background

Where is the West Bank? Why is it so called? The West Bank is part of Palestine. It is a geographical term referring to the area totaling 5,500 square kilometers West of the Jordan river which was merged with Trans-Jordan on April 25, 1950 and was then occupied by Israel in the six-day war.⁽²⁾ (See the following map).



Palestine: General Map

The West Bank is covered by mountains and hills that have steep slopes and are excessively rocky. It is flanked in the east by the Jordan valley, in the West by coastal plain and in the north by valleys converging on the plain of Marj Ban Amir.⁽³⁾

The West Bank can be divided into four sub-regions: the coastal plain and the Jenin area; the uplands; the eastern foothills; and the Jordan valley. The coastal plain includes the Jenin and Tulkarm district and the uplands stretch from south of the Jenin to Hebron district. (See map). The eastern foothills are in a dry region, where rainfall is scarce, while the Jordan valley is characterised by a tropical climate.⁽⁴⁾ The West Bank has a Mediterranean climate with temperatures ranging from as high as 30 degrees C and lower 20 degrees C in the summer and from freezing to 10 degrees C in the winter. However, the West Bank temperature goes as high as 40 degrees especially in the area around the Dead Sea which is the lowest point below sea level in the world. In the mountains of the West Bank however, heavy snow falls during winter mainly in the Middle and South regions.

5.2.1 Historical Background (1895-1967)

The West Bank is a new political name which was ascribed to the area east of Palestine which remained after the 1948 Arab-Israeli War in Palestine.

Palestine is the name used for the historical land of Canaan since the Fourth Century AD, and is derived from the original name of Palestine. The Palestinians are the original inhabitants of the land of Palestine. They are an assimilation of the Canaan tribes who came from the Arabian Peninsula in approximately 3,500BC and the Philistines who arrived from the Aegean Island of Crete in around 1,200 BC.

In the year 1895 the total population of Palestine was 500,000 of whom 47,000 were Jews who owned 0.5 per cent of the land.⁽⁵⁾ In 1896 and following the appearance of anti-semitism in Europe, Herzl the founder of Zionism, tried to find a political solution to the problem in his book "The Jewish State". In his diary, Herzl wrote "After the Jewish state is established it will be necessary to spirit the penniless population across the border.....by denying it any employment."⁽⁶⁾ A year later, the first Zionist movement was held in Basle, Switzerland, which declared that the aim of Zionism was to create a home in Palestine for the Jewish people - perhaps in five years, and certainly in fifty everyone will know of it.⁽⁷⁾

In 1914, with the outbreak of World War 1, Britain promised the independence of Arab lands under Ottoman Turkish rule, which lasted four hundred years, including Palestine, in return for Arab support against Turkey, which had entered the War on the side of Germany.⁽⁸⁾ In 1916, Sir Mark Sykes for Britain and Mr. Charles George Picot for France, drafted an agreement called "The Sykes-Picot Agreement" which suggested a partitioning of Iraq and Syria between a French sphere of influence in the north and a British sphere to the south, with Palestine under international administration. The agreement only came to light after the Bolsheviks made it public in December 1917.⁽⁹⁾ In 1917, Lord Arthur James Balfour, the British Foreign Secretary, sent a letter to Lord Rothschild on behalf of the Zionist Federation, dated 2 November 1917 which later became known as the Balfour Declaration. The letter stated:

"His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of that object, it being

understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by the Jews in any other country".(10)

At that time the population of Palestine was 700,000 of which 574,000 were Muslims, 74,000 were Christians and 56,000 were Jews.(11)

In April 1920, the San Rome Conference which assembled in April 1920, clearly granted Britain a mandate over Palestine and two years later Palestine was effectively under British mandate.

Under the mandate of 24 July 1922, Palestine was allocated by the Supreme War Council to "His Britannic Majesty"; in its preamble this mandate repeated the key passage of the Balfour Declaration.

The Arabs bitterly rejected the Balfour Declaration and Jewish Emigration and called for the prohibition of land sales to Jews. By 1936, Arab political frustration over Zionist gains broke out in overt acts. A six months general strike was followed by a period of total unrest through the year 1939 which came to be known as the Arab Revolt. The Arab Higher Committee formed in April 1936 to coordinate the strike and the battle against Jewish settlement and ultimately against the British presence, was led by the notable families and more particularly, by Haj Amin and his Husseini clan.

As a result, the British withdrew their support of Haj Amin and stripped him from his post as president, mufti, of the Supreme Council and as a chairman of the General Waqf Committee. In addition they dissolved the

Arab Higher Committee which was formed in 1936 and deported six of the leaders while the Mufti fled the country under the threat of arrest.

After the disturbances, the Passfield White Paper of October 1930 temporarily postponed the immigration of Jews to Palestine for a ten year period.⁽¹²⁾

The postponement of a national home concept was rejected by the Zionists, who then organised terrorist groups and deadly attacks against the British and the Palestinians alike. The aim was to drive them both out of Palestine and to pave the way for the establishment of the Zionist State.⁽¹³⁾

In 1947, the United Nations approved the partition of Palestine plan under which the Palestinian Arabs, who accounted for 70 per cent of the population and owned 92 per cent of the land, were allocated 47 per cent of the country.⁽¹⁴⁾ The Arabs objected to the partition plan on the grounds that it was both illegal and unjust to the native Arab community. It was illegal because it was beyond the authority of the General Assembly to recommend the division of a country against the expressed will of the majority of its people, and unjust because it allocated the larger part of the country to a minority of recent immigrants who owned less than 6 per cent of the land.⁽¹⁵⁾ However, the United Nations plan for partition was supported by the United States and the USSR.

The UN Plan would have resulted in a Jewish State with a population half Jewish and half Arab, a Palestinian State almost entirely Arab in population and a separate Jerusalem under the UN Trusteeship Council. The Jewish Agency accepted the plan with reservation particularly relating to the status of Jerusalem, while the Arabs rejected it.⁽¹⁶⁾

After thirty years of British rule and on May 14, 1948, the British withdrew their mandate. On the day of the British withdrawal the Jewish National Provisional Council proclaimed the State of Israel without defining its borders. Arab armies moved then to defend the Palestinians.⁽¹⁷⁾ The better armed and organised Jewish forces with the resources and influence of international Zionism, occupied 78 per cent of Palestine and as a result over one million Palestinians were forced to leave their country.

5.2.2 Israeli Occupation of the West Bank (June 1967-present)

At 7.45a.m. Israeli time on Monday, 5 June, 1967, 8.45 a.m. in Cairo, just as Egyptian commanders were on the way to their offices and air force pilots on the way to their training courses, Israeli aircraft attacked four Egyptian bases in Sinai, three bases near the Suez Canal, one in the Nile Valley and two in the Egyptian delta, and in the ensuing four hours, eight other subsidiary bases. In these devastating strikes, some 300 out of Egypt's 340 combat aircraft were destroyed most of them of Soviet manufacture.⁽¹⁸⁾

Shortly after the attack, General Odd Bull, head of the UN observers in Jerusalem, received an urgent call to visit the Israeli foreign office where he was told to deliver a quick message to King Hussein of Jordan urging him not to take part in the War, and warned that Israel would use all means at its disposal if Jordan decided to take part in the War.⁽¹⁹⁾ The United States was asked to transmit a similar communication.⁽²⁰⁾

General Odd Bull described the messages as 'a simple and pure type of threat'. He also went on to say that it is not the duty of the UN to pass on such messages. However, he found no alternative but to convey the Israeli

threat to Jordan. By the time the message reached Amman, the Jordanian Army was already taking part in the fight against Israel. Israel responded with massive air strikes against Al-Mafraq in Jordan.⁽²¹⁾ General Bull made three separate attempts to arrange a cease fire but without success.⁽²²⁾

Although Israeli forces were met with bitter resistance on the central front from King Hussein's Arab Legion, they succeeded in occupying the whole area of the West Bank including Jerusalem.⁽²³⁾ Having beaten Nasser and Hussein's forces, the Israeli's finally moved northward to occupy the Golan Heights. By 11 June, the six day war had come to an end with the acceptance by Israel, Egypt and Jordan of a cease fire brought about by the United Nations Security Council.

The consequence of the war was that Israel had enormously enlarged the territory which it now controlled. The whole of Gaza is now under Israeli occupation. So too is East Jerusalem and the West Bank of Jordan which were under Jordanian control since 1949. Sinai was returned to Egypt after the signing of the Camp David Agreement in 1979 and the historical visit of Anwar Sadat of Egypt to Jerusalem.

In the north, the Israelis had now occupied the Golan Heights after having successfully defeated the Syrian forces.

5.2.3 The Arab Israeli War (1973)

After their humiliation in June 1967, however, the Arab states were not prepared to condone even the existence of Israel. Leaders of Arab States met at Khartoum at the end of August 1967, and decided what is known today as the Three No's.⁽²⁴⁾

- No negotiations with Israel
- No peace with Israel
- No recognition of Israel.

Adding to all these decisions, the Arab leaders adamantly decided that Palestinian territory could not be subject to bargaining.⁽²⁵⁾

As a result, on 6 October 1973, Israel was almost taken by surprise, when an Egyptian offensive was launched across the Suez Canal and Syria struck on the Golan Heights. Following the UN Security Council resolution a cease fire finally came about on October 24. Sadat, asked for a joint Russian-American Peace Keeping Force. Nixon did not welcome the idea because to the American's it meant the return of Russian to the Middle East.⁽²⁶⁾ On the other side Brezhnev insisted that the United States and Russian should immediately send military forces to the Middle East. Washington, however, took this as a threat of unilateral Russian intervention. Brezhnev gave way.⁽²⁷⁾

On 7 November Egypt and the United States resumed full diplomatic relations after a break of six years. In December 1973 an agreement was reached by Egypt and Israel on disengagement, and a disengagement agreement was signed with Syria on 31 May 1974. A further disengagement agreement was signed between Israel and Egypt in September 1975.⁽²⁸⁾

5.2.4 The Camp David Accord

In September 1978, President Carter convened the Camp David Conference at which Egypt and Israel agreed on a framework for peace in the Middle

East with treaties to be negotiated between Israel and her Arab neighbours. Negotiations began in the USA between Egypt and Israel in October 1978 and the peace treaty was signed in Washington on 26 March 1979.⁽²⁹⁾ Under the treaty the Israelis withdrew from the Sinai Desert in two phases, part one was achieved on 26 January 1980 and the final withdrawal by 26 April 1982.

5.3 The Palestinian Population on the West Bank

The population of the West Bank at the end of 1985 stood at 813,400 ⁽³⁰⁾ that is an average increase of 20,000 per year or a percent annual growth of 2.5. The Israeli estimation of the West Bank population shows an increase of annual growth in the last few years. Between 1985, the annual growth was between 2.4 and 3.0 percent and 1.8 for the period from 1969 to 1982, except 1974 which faced annual growth of 2.7.⁽³¹⁾

The population of the West Bank before the 1967 war was 934,500. In 1968, following mass expulsion, the population went down to 603,00 and by 1970 had increased only to 704,000.⁽³²⁾

This represents an annual rate of increase of barely 1.2 per cent for the period of 1968-1980, going down as little as 1 per cent in the last year.⁽³³⁾ During the period 1967-1984, the West Banks population fell about 61 per cent. This drastic drop was caused by expulsion and emigration. The national rate of increase of Palestinians in the West Bank is about 3 per cent per annum. Given the 1967 figure of 934,500, the population should have reached about 1,415,000 by 1984, instead of 787,000. The shortfall of 628,000 represents a loss through emigration.⁽³⁴⁾ The increase in emigration belies the Israeli claim that the quality of life in the West Bank is improving. Changes in the size of the West Bank population over recent

years demonstrate how the occupation regime is obliterating the Palestinian identity.⁽³⁵⁾ As of the West Bank population distribution it was found that in 1980, the total West Bank population was distributed into 64.5 per cent rural dwellers, 25.5 per cent urban settlers and 10 per cent residing in refugee camps.⁽³⁶⁾

5.4 West Bank Administration

Since 1967, the whole area of the West Bank has been under Israeli Military control and the Palestinians in the West Bank have had their own structure of public and private institutions. These institutions on the West Bank function as well as they can. They still operate under laws dating from Jordanian and British mandates and are subject to the exigencies of the current military occupation. The Israeli military government implements the political and legal structure of the pre-1967 Jordanian region in the West Bank to the extent to which this structure conforms with this requirement within the occupational framework.

The Israeli government in the West Bank operates on two levels. The Civil administration includes such departments as health, education, social welfare, transportation and agriculture. These departments are headed by Israeli officers attached to the military headquarters in the West Bank.

On the local level, most municipal government is run by appointed Palestinian mayors. It is worth mentioning at this point that Municipal elections were permitted only twice during the occupation. The first election took place in 1972 and the second was held in 1976. As a result of the election, a new type of leadership was swept into office on pro-PLO slates, which won overwhelmingly.⁽³⁷⁾ As a result of this unwanted outcome of

elections, the Israeli government banned all municipal elections till further notice on grounds that elected Palestinian mayors on average are supporters of the Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO), an outlawed organisation by the Israeli authorities.

In the light of the absence of a Palestinian National Government in the occupied West Bank and Gaza, the Palestinians in these territories regarded the elected Palestinian mayors as their local representatives with the Palestine Liberation Organisation as the sole legitimate representative of all Palestinians and as their national government in exile.

5.5 The Palestinian Uprising (Intifada): December 1987

Major General Herzog in his book on the War of October 1973, observes that (at least until that War) Israeli leaders had never understood the important significance of Arab pride, self respect and honour.⁽³⁸⁾ The importance of pride and honour to the Arabs was well manifested in December 1987, when a popular Palestinian uprising engulfed every Palestinian hamlet, city and town. The Palestinians seemed to have lost hope in any political solution that would emancipate them from the shackles of what they view as a hateful occupation. The uprising was the Palestinians ultimate response to an unabatedly explosive situation.

It is sufficiently clear that nearly twenty three years of military occupation had made life for the vast majority of Palestinians in the occupied territories so unbearable that people could not endure it any longer. As of this time, the intifada is still raging with no end in sight. The Israelis have employed every conceivable repressive measure against it but to no avail. The Palestine National Council (PNC) convened in Algeria between 12-16

November 1988, in an emergency meeting which was called the “meeting of the Intifada”. At the end of the PNC meeting, the PLO leader, Yasir Arafat, proclaimed the independent Palestinian state on 15 November 1988.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has attempted to identify the main features of the West Bank. The material presented in this Chapter has given us a complete picture of the geographical, political and demographic aspects of the region. It is evident from the material presented that Palestinians have endured foreign occupations. Four hundred years of Ottoman Turkish rule came to an end during World War I to be followed by thirty years of British rule. No sooner had the British Mandate ended on May 15, 1948 than a new occupation regime was declared on 78 per cent of Palestine.⁽³⁹⁾

The chapter was beneficial in presenting an overview of the the recent major political developments that are taking place in that territory. A brief summary of the West Bank way of administration was also highlighted in this chapter.

The overall disucssion of this chapter indicated that the political conflict is not a new concept to the West Bank. The West Bank has been the arena for wars and struggles for many decades. Unfortunately, it is believed that it will continue to be unstable until all conflicting parties will eventually realise that peace and coexistence are the only solutions to a better future. And for the peace to be successful, it must in the end give the Palestinian a sense that their rights have been vindicated and reparation been made for their suffering.⁽⁴⁰⁾

CHAPTER 5

Endnotes

1. Massoud Y. El-Baruni, Personal Value System of Libyan Managers: An Exploratory Study. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Saint Louis University. (1980), p. 94.
2. Susan Hattis Rotel, Political Dictionary of the State of Israel. (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. 1987), p. 318.
3. David Kahan, Agriculture and Water Resources in the West Bank and Gaza: 1967-1987. (Jerusalem: The West Bank Data Base Project 1987), p.1.
4. Ibid.
5. The Palestine Post. 1989, p.6.
6. Theodor Herzl, Complete Diaries (Ed). Raphael Patai, trans. Harry Zohn (New York: Herzl Press and T. Yoseloff, 1960), 1:88, entry for 6/12/1895.
7. European Publications Limited. The Middle East and North Africa, 1990, Thirty-sixth edition (London: Europa Publications Ltd 1989), p. 497.
8. The Palestine Post, p.6.
9. Gwyn Rowley, Israel into Palestine. (London: Mansell Publishing Limited 1984), p.15.
10. H.C. Luke and Keith-Roach, E. The Handbook of Palestine. (London: Macmillan, 1922), p.26.
11. The Palestine Post, p. 6.
12. Joel S. Migdal, The Palestinian Society and Politics (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1980), pp. 233-234.
13. The Palestine Post, p.6.

14. Ibid., p.7.
15. Henry Cattán, Palestine, the Arabs and Israel: The Search for Justice.
(London: Longmans, 1969), pp.25-30.
16. Gwyn Rowley, *op cit.*, pp. 26-27.
17. The Palestine Post, p.7.
18. Sydney D. Bailey, The Making of Resolutions 272 (The Netherlands:
Kluwer Academic Publishers Group, 1985) p.68.
19. Ibid.
20. Ibid.
21. Ibid.
22. Bull p.113. Eban p. 405-7; Dayan p. 335; (King) Hussein of Jordan
My War With Israel, pp. 64-5 and 71.
23. J.R. Gainsborough The Arab Israeli Conflict: A Political Legal
Analysis. (Vermont: Gower Publishing Company, 1986) p.127.
24. Ritchie Ovendale. The Origins of the Arab-Israeli Wars. (New York:
Longman Group Limited, 1989) p.185.
25. Ibid.
26. Ibid.
27. Ibid.
28. Harold Wilson The Chariot of Israel. Britain, America and the State of
Israel. (London, 1981) pp. 362-72.
29. John Paston The Statesman's Yearbook, 124th edition. 1987-88, p.
723.
30. Government of Israel Central Bureau of Statistics Statistical Abstract of
Israel, 1986, p. 583.
31. Ibid., p. 683.
32. Adel Samara The Political Economy of the West Bank 1967-1987.
(Khamsin, 1988), p. 105.

33. Samid al Eqtisadi, No. 61, p. 34.
34. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p. 105.
35. Ibid.
36. Ibrahim Wade Ata The West Bank Palestinian Family (London: KPE Limited, 1986), p. 38.
37. Emile A. Nakhleh The West Bank and Gaza: Toward the Making of a Palestinian State. (Washington: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1979) p. 11.
38. Herzog, The War of Atonement in David H. Ott, Palestine in Perspective, Politics, Human Rights and the West Bank. (London: Quartet Books, 1980), p. 147.
39. Naseer Aruri (Ed.) Occupation: Israel Over Palestine (London: Zed Books Ltd., 1984), p.5.
40. David H. Ott, Palestine in Perspectives, Politics, Human Rights and the West Bank (London: Quartet Books), 1980, p.147.

CHAPTER 6

ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

6.1 Introduction

In cross-cultural studies it is necessary for a writer to shed light on major environmental factors. Such discussion is of vital importance in the later analysis of the thesis. The environment in which people live has a direct or indirect impact on their practice, behaviour and life style. In this section, the researcher will give a thorough description of the West Bank economy as it provides the reader with a better understanding of the region and its present economic structure. In order to go about this the researcher has broken the West Bank economy into the following sectors.

6.2 Agriculture

The West Bank's gross area is 6,087,483 dunams, including the Jerusalem area of 67,000 dunams. Cultivated land in 1967-68 amounted to 21,240,812 dunams of 36.9 per cent of the total area. The cultivated area had decreased to 2,020,000 dunams by 1974 a fall of 33.2 per cent of the total area. (1) There are two million dunams of forest and grazing land (forestry 255,000 and grazing land 1,745,000 dunams). (2) The cultivated area in the West Bank amounted to 2,435,000 dunams in 1985 of which 322,000 dunams were irrigated areas. As this area decreased during the years of occupation to 1,577,000 dunams (1983), so the irrigated area decreased to 86,000 dunams. The percentage of decrease was 35 per cent of the agricultural area as a whole and 73 per cent of the irrigated area.(3)

According to Awartani, cultivated land has decreased by 24 per cent since

1066. According to Shuqair (1983), the area of cultivated land decreased from 2,614,000 dunams in 1967-68 to 1,610,800 dunams in 1977-78, a fall of 38 per cent. ⁽⁴⁾ In 1967 most of the land was extensively farmed, private land with some 70 per cent of the farmers as owner-occupiers and the remainder as tenant farmers.⁽⁵⁾ Before 1967, the West Bank was the food basket of Jordan. It provided 50 per cent of Jordan's needs in olives and olive oil. Agriculture's share declined in the years 1970-73. In this period a sizeable share of the rural workers recruited to jobs inside the green line. About 66,000 Palestinians became employed there by 1975.⁽⁶⁾ Until 1981-1984 agriculture was the most unstable of the Palestinian economic sectors. During the period under review, however, the share of agriculture in the West Bank GDP shows a continuous decline. The contribution of agriculture to the GDP shows a steady decline from almost 40 per cent in 1980 to 27 per cent in 1983. ⁽⁷⁾ The share of agriculture in GDP has been falling from 32 per cent in 1978 to 28 per cent in 1984 while that of trade, transport, and personal services has been rising from 26 per cent to 33 per cent in the same period.⁽⁸⁾ The value of agricultural production in 1984 was about 250 million dollars compared with 300 million dollars in 1983 and 320 million dollars in 1982, showing a constant decline in value of agricultural production between 1966 and 1981 of 6.9 per cent.⁽⁹⁾

Comparing Israeli farmers with their Palestinian counterparts, we find that subsidisation has enabled Israeli farmers to easily sell their products. Some of the Israeli subsidy comes through TNUVA a large agricultural monopoly entitled to buy and market all Israeli farm produce at a price subsidised by the Ministry of Agriculture. Capital is available to Israeli farmers in the form of grants of easy loans, while none of these facilities are available to West Bank farmers. Besides the lack of subsidies available to Palestinian

farmers, they are forbidden to market their crops inside the Green Line without the written approval of the Israeli Military Government which is very hard to obtain.⁽¹⁰⁾

6.3 Industry

In the economy of the West Bank, industry does not play a major role despite rapid growth in Gross National Product. On the contrary, its proportion of GNP fell from 9 per cent in 1968 to 6.7 per cent in 1984.⁽¹¹⁾ The number of employed persons in the industry in the West Bank was 14.6 thousand by 1970, 15.2 thousand by 1980 and 16.2 thousand by 1985. ⁽¹²⁾ The number of those employed in this sector during the Jordanian rule was 15,00 persons ⁽¹³⁾ which means that there is no real change in the level of industrial employment for about 18 years. ⁽¹⁴⁾ The industrial sector on the West Bank is meagre, stagnant and underdeveloped. There were 2,140 factories operating in the West Bank in 1983, with 8,550 workers (including employees), the average number of workers in a single factory is 4.⁽¹⁵⁾ The number of employees in the industrial plants is around 9,550 or 9 per cent of the total employed in the West Bank.⁽¹⁶⁾

The structure of the West Bank Industry is mainly concentrated on paper products, plastic, chemical industries, footwear, leather industry and tobacco. These industries are the fastest growing of the West Bank Industrial Sector, because these branches produce goods, the demand for which has surged ahead with the rapid increase in disposable income.⁽⁷⁾ Greater affluence has meant increased consumption of toiletries, the rapid rise in washing machine ownership has stimulated purchase of detergents and fabric softeners; plastic containers have replaced earthenware or metal

parts. Paper products, plastic and chemical industries are characterised by a high degree of concentration in the chemical industry. Big firms clearly dominate sales, although small competition abounds. (18) The degree of concentration is highest in the plastic industry and lowest in the paper goods industry, although the size of the average production unit is higher in the paper industry than in the chemical industry. Both are dominated by some of the largest and most sophisticated companies in the West Bank. (19)

Geographical concentration of this branch has emerged as well. Ramalla and its environs house only one quarter of the first but nearly half of the workforce in this branch. While the average firms employ no more than six workers, the average plant in Ramalla employs over three. As for industry's contribution in the GDP, the UN (1986) reported in the period 1978-84 the share of industry in the GDP fluctuated between 7-9 per cent. Another source which covers a longer period, reveals that in the West Bank, the contribution of the industrialised sector to the GDP in the past ten years declined from 9 per cent to 6.5 per cent.

It is worth noting that the economic restrictions imposed on Palestinian products by Israel makes it very difficult to market produce from the West Bank and Gaza inside Israel. Regarding this Dick wrote:

“The Israeli authorities do not allow any competition with their own produce. This is particularly the case with citrus. Conversely, the occupied territories are open to Israeli produce. Additionally, the authorities have not allowed shipments to the European market.(20)

Moreover, the West Bank firms cannot in general import raw material or export their output except through an Israeli third party. Some firms, such

as the plastic company in Beit Sahur near Bethlehem, the vegetable oil company in Nablus, are allowed to import raw materials through Jordan. In addition to the incorporation of the West Bank productive structure into the Israeli economy, and the Israeli policies and military order which control all aspects of life there, the trade relations of the area is shaped toward the interests of the Israeli economy. The West Bank historical relations with the World Market since the last century and through the mandate and the Jordan rules, are decisively reshaped by the occupation.⁽²¹⁾

Most of the West Bank trade is with Israel. In 1984, the Palestinian sector sold 100 million dollars worth of goods to the Israeli sector and bought 363 million dollars of goods. Trade with Israel represented 55 per cent of the West Bank export and 90 per cent of its imports. Trade with Jordan represented 2 per cent of the West Bank imports and 45 per cent of its exports. Exports to other countries are negligible.⁽²²⁾ The UN reported that the amount of exports and imports had increased because of the difficult economic situation, mainly the decline of both productivity and remittance. It is worth mentioning that private consumption has exceeded the GDP since 1978, with a margin varying from low of 3 per cent in 1980, a year marked by strong economic performance in the territories, to a high of 18 per cent in 1979 and 14 per cent in 1984.⁽²³⁾ The average effect of this trend upon domestic investment of the balance of payments cannot be underestimated. Foodstuffs, building stores, leather and cloth, constitute a major share of the West Bank's exports to Israel. On the other hand, consumer goods, industrial products and electrical and electronics represent the majority of Israeli exports to the West Bank. ⁽²⁴⁾

6.4 Labour and Employment

At the close of the 1967 six-day war, Israel was in control of nearly one million Arabs in the West Bank and Gaza Strip.⁽²⁵⁾ During the year that followed, an ever growing number of residents of the so called military administered territories joined the Israeli labour market. Lack of economic opportunities in the West Bank and Gaza Strip made it necessary for many of these workers to seek employment in Israel.⁽²⁶⁾ In mid-1975, the number of West Bank workers in Israel began to decrease primarily because of the slowdown in the Israeli economy, especially in the construction sectors, and the economic growth in Jordan. Because of the slowdown in the economy along with the dearth of professional posts for Palestinians, there was a continual 'brain drain'. Palestinian calculations of the true level of unemployment vary. Many sources estimated the level to be at 34 per cent to 40 per cent in early 1985, while other sources put it at a lower level of 22 per cent in the relatively prosperous Bethlehem area in 1984.⁽²⁷⁾ The same source has been quoted in 1985 as saying that unemployment and under-employment are now so pervasive as to defy realistic assessment.⁽²⁸⁾ In 1978, however, at least 50,000 Palestinian workers still worked in Israel.⁽²⁹⁾ However, a great number of Arabs working in Israel are not formally registered and are experiencing very poor working conditions.

A large proportion of the Arab workers employed in Israeli enterprises are working illegally with the connivance of their Israeli employers. The most obvious consequence of this, apart from the fact that they are not officially registered anywhere, is that their exploitation is made much easier. Moreover, the establishment of illegal Israeli settlements in the occupied Arab Lands has further facilitated the unregulated entry of Arab labour into

the Israeli economy, as many Palestinians work in menial capacities in their construction and maintenance.⁽³⁰⁾

Palestinian workers commute from the West Bank and Gaza Strip to work in Israel. They must spend much of their day simply travelling, often in overcrowded and dangerous conditions. The time spent thus is, on average, three hours per day. Road accidents in such circumstances are frequent, as the world was shocked to learn when 22 Palestinian workers from Gaza were killed, and another 50 injured in a collision between the lorry transporting them and an Israeli military vehicle in August 1981.⁽³¹⁾ The cost of this travel also makes a large dent in the Palestinian's wage, as his employer rarely contributes towards it. He must spend this average of three hours a day travelling because Arab workers from the occupied territories are forbidden to stay overnight in Israel. Whoever is caught spending the night in Israel will be jailed and fined. If in exceptional circumstances a permit is granted for this purpose, or the worker decides to save money by sleeping in Israel illegally, it is common practice for his employer to lock him into his sleeping quarters, to avoid the risk of his straying into the streets and being arrested. This practice resulted in a Tel-Aviv factory owner being sentenced in June 1979 to three months in prison and a fine of 1L5,000 after two of his Arab workers were burned to death while sleeping in a depot which was locked from the outside.⁽³²⁾

Another incident took place in the year 1981 when a large force consisting of police and border guards broke into the work camp organised by the Nazareth Municipality and arrested about one hundred youngsters from the occupied West Bank, who were staying at the work camp illegally. Those arrested were transferred to police stations in their home towns in the West

Bank, and charged with breaking the military government regulations which forbid the inhabitants of the territories to remain in Israel between 1.00a.m. and 3.00a.m. without a special pass from the military governor.⁽³³⁾ As we have seen earlier in the chapter the number of West Bank workers in Israel has decreased. According to the Israeli Civil Administration Judea and Samaria Annual Report (C.A.J.S.A.R.) of 1984/85, the total employed workforce of the West Bank in 1984 was 154,000.⁽³⁴⁾

Today the total number of Palestinians working in Israel has decreased even more due to the Palestinian uprising (Intifada) and the boycotting of Israeli labour. Talking about the number of those employed inside the West Bank itself, we will find it to be about 104,000 which amounts to 68 per cent of the total employed workforce living in the West Bank, but only 46 per cent of the total West Bank workforce.⁽³⁵⁾ The number of West Bank residents employed in Arab countries was high in the mid 1970s but declined in 1983-1984 with the deterioration in economic conditions in the oil producing countries.⁽³⁶⁾ According to the Israeli Civil Administration - Judea and Samaria Annual Report, the sectoral distribution of those employed inside the West Bank is illustrated in Table 6.1 as follows:⁽³⁷⁾

Table 6.1 Sectoral Distribution of Those Employed in the West Bank

Sector	Number	Percentage
Agriculture	30,000	29
Industry	16,000	15
Construction	12,000	12
Public Service	17,000	16
Others	29,000	28
TOTAL	104,000	100

Source: Adel Samara. *The Political Economy of the West Bank, 1967-87*
Khamasin, 1988, p.107

Looking at the structural change in the West Bank economy for a period of six years, we will find it to be as follows.⁽³⁸⁾ See Table 6.2 below:

Table 6.2 Structural Change in the West Bank Economy

Year	Agriculture	Industry	Construction	Other Services
1970	42.5	16.4	8.4	34.5
1976	33.9	14.9	10.6	41.2
1981	30.5	15.7	11.9	41.9
1982	32.1	15.9	10.6	41.4
1983	29.5	16.1	11.0	43.4
1984	28.5	15.9	11.3	44.3

Source: Adel Samara. *The Political Economy of the West Bank 1967-1987*. Khamasin, 1988, p.108.

By looking at Table 6.2 we notice a sharp decrease in percentage of those Arabs working in agriculture and an increase in the percentage of those working in the service sector. The percentage employed in industry has remained almost constant at around 15 per cent and there has been growth in employment in construction and in the personal service sector.

6.5 West Bank Economy During the Intifada (Dec.1987-present)

One of the main aims of a civilian based resistance to occupation must be to impose such a cost on the occupier as to make options of withdrawal more attractive than maintaining the occupation.⁽³⁹⁾ The main purpose of this section is to examine the latest economic developments during the Intifada. As we may have seen on TV or heard from the media, the Palestinian Intifada began in late 1987 with a massive display of defiance and near total boycotting of the Israeli occupiers. Such a boycott included the staying at home by Palestinians during general strike days, the boycotting of Israeli

products, government offices, and even Israeli media like radio. The boycotting of Israeli labour by Palestinian workers was so manifested! It was reported that more than 70 per cent of the 110,000 Palestinians who work in Israel had failed to attend for work during the first weeks of the Intifada, either because they were responding to the general strike calls made by the unified national leadership of the uprising, or because Palestinian cities and towns were placed under curfew for long periods by the Israeli military forces. Many buses transporting workers to Israel were fire bombed, pelted with stones which smashed windows. The consequences of this were immediately recognised by Israeli employers, particularly by the Israeli farmers who depend heavily on Palestinian cheap labour. For example, Palestinians make up one third of the workforce for picking and packing fruits. There were reports that the Israeli agricultural marketing body Agresco lost 500,000 dollars during December 1987 and January 1988 as a result of not being able to fulfill orders for the British Markets.⁽⁴⁰⁾

As a result Israel threatened to stop workers who participated in the strikes from entering Israel, and due to this many Palestinians lost their jobs and the advantages of long years of employment in Israel. Alongside the withdrawal of labour in solidarity with the Intifada, and in response to the calls of the unified national leadership of the uprising, Palestinians began boycotting Israeli made products. Leaflets issued throughout the territories warned Palestinians against buying Israeli goods for which Palestinian alternatives were available. According to a published report Israel lost 28 million pounds sterling as a result of the loss in sales and production caused by the Intifada. Israeli textiles, food products and soap powders have suffered most. The loss of markets in the West Bank was a grave threat to many small Israeli enterprises.⁽⁴¹⁾

6.6 Conducting Business During the Intifada

During the Intifada virtually every day is a general strike day. Shops open only 4 hours daily. Palestinians and visitors have to do their shopping during these morning hours. The response of the Israelis was to try and force the shops to open, breaking the locks of those which were closed. A variant of this was to weld shut the doors of shops closed in response to strike calls. The cost of this was heavy on the Palestinian part. The total commercial strikes in key business centres like Nablus, Ramalla and East Jerusalem left many Palestinian merchants on the verge of bankruptcy.⁽⁴²⁾

To Palestinians, the closure of the shops each day demonstrated to the occupiers that the situation was not normal and that the leadership of the uprising was in control of the situation rather than the Israelis. Despite the short business hours, Palestinian strike forces go out and battle with the Israeli Army on the streets without paying attention to Israeli threats of closing the areas of battle grounds. For example, Nablus was closed for a whole week during the month of March as the battle of wills between the Israeli forces and the young Palestinian rock throwers continued. Thus, towards the end of April, fourteen merchants in East Jerusalem were arrested and brought to Israeli courts. They were charged with disobeying military orders to open their stores.⁽⁴³⁾

There is no doubt that shopkeepers and traders in the West Bank have suffered. Many Palestinians found themselves without any form of income for weeks.⁽⁴⁴⁾ It was estimated that Palestinian industry, although not occupying a major role in the economy of the occupied territories, had suffered a drop of between 25-30 per cent in sales as a consequence of the first months of the Intifada. However, the drop in demand consequent upon

consumers having reduced disposable income was offset to some degree by the increased purchase of local Palestinian products in preference to Israeli ones. Indeed, some companies, such as the Jneidi Dairy Products factory in Hebron, recorded improved sales due to the boycotting of Israeli products.⁽⁴⁵⁾

6.7 The Tax War

It has been the merchants in the occupied territories who have borne the brunt of the struggle over taxes which has been an enduring feature of the uprising.⁽⁴⁶⁾ Early in 1988 the leadership of the uprising called upon Palestinians to refuse to meet the Israeli tax demands, as part of the overall strategy of disengagement from the occupying power and its civil administration. At the same time an alternative "taxation" system was being developed, with popular committees collecting money and supplies from those who could afford to give, for distribution amongst the needy.⁽⁴⁷⁾ It has been estimated that Israel collected some 160 million dollars in tax revenue from the West Bank in 1987.⁽⁴⁸⁾ Stores were raided, identity cards and business documents of merchants were confiscated by Israelis, reclaimed only after the merchant had reported to the tax office and paid the amount of tax the authorities claimed was owed.⁽⁴⁹⁾

In East Jerusalem seventeen hotels had their bank accounts frozen for failure to pay the municipal tax. In June 1988, at the time when their bank accounts were frozen, the occupancy rate in East Jerusalem hotels was around 18 per cent compared with 32 per cent in June 1987.⁽⁵⁰⁾

Beside all these measures, the Israelis took advantage of curfews to collect taxes, raiding the homes of merchants and workshop owners to seize

property. Another method adopted by the Israelis is to insist upon a Palestinian producing a document of clearance proving that they have paid their taxes before they are issued any kind of official document such as travel or export permits, birth certificates, driving licences, or renewed identity cards.⁽⁵¹⁾ In May 400,000 Gazans were ordered to renew their identity cards. In order to obtain new cards they were required to prove that they had paid their taxes.⁽⁵²⁾

6.8 Agriculture Punishment

Another feature of the Israeli attempt to make the Palestinians suffer economically for their resistance has taken the form of collective economic sanctions.⁽⁵³⁾ The Israelis refused to grant export licenses to olive grove owners, the major agricultural crop in the West Bank without the downpayment of 10,000 Jordanian dinars (JD), an amount in the region of 20,000 pounds sterling, for anticipated taxes.⁽⁵⁴⁾ The Israelis made it clear to olive producers that they intended to use the economic importance of the olive crop as a weapon to restore their control.⁽⁵⁵⁾ The same measures were adopted with regard to apple, plum and grape crops in the Hebron area where farmers were prevented from transporting their crops to the major wholesale markets, and forbidden to export to Jordan or to Israel. One farmer in the Halhoul region, near Hebron, reported that his normal annual profit on the grape harvest of 10,000 dollars, had been reduced to 1000 dollars.⁽⁵⁶⁾

West Bank villages and cities which sought to disengage themselves from the "civil administration" of the West Bank refused to pay their water and electricity bills to the Israeli appointed local councils. In retaliation the supply from the Israeli Mekerot Water Company and the electricity supply

was cut off. (57)

Finally, pressure on the Palestinian economy appeared likely to intensify in March when the ninth leaflet from the unified command of the uprising called on all those Palestinians working for the Israelis in the occupied territories to resign and stop betraying their people. The resignations of about 17,000 Palestinians was a symbolic victory for the leadership of the uprising. As it was, a number of tax officials and other workers with the civil administration resigned, along with the majority of the police officers. (58)

These are some of the economic costs for the Israelis and Palestinians. There are other psychological costs which the researcher has not talked about in this small section. The struggle by both sides to impose punitive economic costs on the opponent as a means of influencing the eventual outcome has been of crucial significance. And despite the costs being borne by both sides, it is difficult to see an end to the conflict. (59)

6.9 Summary

The Israeli occupation of the West Bank and Gaza Strip is not just a military one. It is an economic occupation as well. Through the use of fiscal judicial and military means, Israel has moulded the economic life of the occupied West Bank and Gaza Strip into a form suitable to its own society and needs. The Palestinian economy has been under attack from Israel, and the preconditions for development, material resources, research planning, labour power and contact with the outside world are being stripped away. Israeli control of the territories destroyed the economic and political system

in the West Bank despite the growth rate in employment, industry and the improvement in living standards of Palestinians. As a result of the occupation and the hardships and agony imposed on the Palestinians, the Palestinian civilian resistance to the occupation must be to impose such a cost on the occupier as to make option of withdrawal more attractive than maintaining the occupation.⁽⁶⁰⁾ Such resistance was clearly manifested through the Intifada.

CHAPTER 6

Endnotes

1. Gahndor, Samed, No. 44, 1983, p.7-8.
2. Kahan, 1983, p.2.
3. Dajani, Samed, No.61, 1986, p.34.
4. Shuqair, Samed, No.46, 1983, p.107.
5. Kahan, *op cit.*, p.17.
6. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, Kamasin, No.12, 1986, p.71.
7. Meron Benvenisti, The West Bank Handbook, (The West Bank Data Base Project, Jerusalem, 1986), p.8.
8. United Nations Report, 1986, p.5.
9. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p.9.
10. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p.92.
11. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p.112.
12. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p.110.
13. Drabkin, H., and Tuma, E.H. The Economic Case for Palestine.
(London: Croom Helm, 1978), p.65.
14. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p.110.
15. Israeli Civil Administration for Judea and Samaria Annual Report,
1984, p.15.
16. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p. 10.
17. Hillel Frisch, Stagnation and Frontier, Arab and Jewish Industry in the
West Bank, (Jerusalem, 1983), p.38.
18. Ibid., p.38.
19. Ibid., p.39.
20. Harold Dick, "Towards a Strategy for Development: Empowerment and

Entrepreneurship", in George T. Abed (Ed) in The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development Under Prolonged Occupation.

(London: Routledge, 1988), p.330.

21. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p.112.
22. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p.6.
23. Adal Samara, *op cit.*, , p.112.
24. Ibid., p.113.
25. Moshe Semyonou and Noah Lewin-Epstein, Hewers of Wood and Drawers of Water: Non-Citizen Arabs in the Israeli Labour Market, 1987, p.1.
26. Ibid., p.1.
27. Simon Taggart, Workers in Struggle: Palestinian Trade Unions in the Occupied West Bank, Editpride, 1985.
28. Palestine Post, September 1985.
29. Bregman, A. Economic Growth in the Administered Areas 1968-1973. Second Edition. Jerusalem, 1975.
30. Paul Harper, Labouring Under Oppression: Poles and Palestinians, London, p.4.
31. Ibid., p.6.
32. Ibid., p.6-7.
33. Yediot Aharonot, 23.8.1981. (In Hebrew).
34. Adel Samara, The Political Economy of the West Bank 1967-1987. Khamasin 1988, p.107.
35. Ibid., p.107.
36. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p.85.
37. Adel Samara, *op cit.*, p.108.
38. Ibid., p.108.
39. Andrew Rigby, Economic Aspects of the Intifada, (Jerusalem, Passia,

1988), p.4.

40. The Independent, January 30, 1988.
41. The Guardian, March 4, 1988.
42. C. Richards, The Independent, January 30, 1988.
43. A meeting of East Jerusalem merchants threatened an indefinite strike until the fourteen were released. See Al-fajr Palestinian Daily Newspaper, Jerusalem, May 1, 1988. (In Arabic).
44. C. Richards, *op cit.*
45. Al-Fajr, March 20, 1988 (In Arabic).
46. Palestinians in the territories have been taxed more heavily than Israel.
See S.J. Baxendale, Christian Science Monitor (CSM).
47. Andrew Rigby, *op cit.*, p.12-13.
48. See D.R. Francis, CSM, May 9-15, 1988.
49. Andrew Rigby, *op cit.*, p.13.
50. Al-Fajr, August 14, 1988, (In Arabic).
51. Andrew Rigby, *op cit.*, p.14.
52. Ibid., p.14.
53. Ibid., p.176.
54. Financial Times, October 8, 1988.
55. Andrew Rigby, *op cit.*, p. 16.
56. The Guardian, March 16, 1988.
57. Andrew Rigby, *op cit.*, p.17.
58. Ibid., p.7-8.
59. Ibid., p.2-6.
60. Ibid., p.4.

CHAPTER 7

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS, PRACTICES AND CULTURAL THEMES ON THE WEST BANK

“The Sacred Law could not be disregarded nor could it, despite many adaptations, be really carried out in practice”.

Max Webber⁽¹⁾

Islamic conservatism is at present the dominant ideological force in Arab Society

Hisham Sharabi⁽²⁾

7.1 Introduction

The study of culture in social sciences research has created a strong interest in the totality of each culture. It is commonly believed that hardly any trait of culture can be understood when taken out of its general setting. Culture is more than its functionally organized parts; it has a “soul” that gives direction to the functions⁽³⁾. This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section attempts to give a thorough description of the main religious beliefs of the majority of Arab managers in the West Bank. The second section deals with Islam and economic prosperity as well as with the main practices of managers as their way of belief. The final section will discuss the major cultural themes existing in the West Bank as appeared in written literature.

7.2 Major Beliefs in the West Bank

Religion has a great and direct impact on human behaviour, social interactions, and social relations. In fact, religion might influence the political and educational system of any society. Concerning this Weber

pointed out that:

“the religious determination of life conduct, however, is also one, not the only one, of the determinants of the economic ethic. Of course, the religiously determined way of life is itself profoundly influenced by economic and political factors operating within given geographical, political, social and national boundaries”. (4)

The combination of religion and nationality is a form of identification for the majority of Palestinians. The synthesised identity has, for centuries, influenced the sense of belonging, political lifestyle and communal cohesion. Presumably different cultural traditions emerged across geographic boundaries because of the communities isolation. The early Church simply evolved in different areas using languages and customs of particular places, their own bishops and even liturgy, though they maintained a viable relationship with the original apostolic churches in Jerusalem, Rome or Antioch. The West Bank has embraced various religious and ethnic groups in its folds: Greek Orthodox, Malkites (Greek Catholics), Protestants of all sects, Copts, Assyrians, Kurds, Armenians and Jews, only to name a few among the Christian affiliations. (5)

The influence of religion on most aspects of one's life is obvious, including matters such as divorce, baptism, courtship, death and marriage. (6) The most important instrument through which religion exercised its hold on the individual was the traditional patriarchal extended family. As the family system was supported by religion, being a religious institution, family and religion eventually supported each other. When the individual left his

family behind, he had rejected an inately religious atmosphere.⁽⁷⁾

Religious identity served as a very important means of social differentiation in the Arab World. Consciousness of social distance is clearly marked among the Arabs.⁽⁸⁾ Muslims are an overwhelming majority in every Middle Eastern country. In the West Bank itself, Muslims make up 90% of the total population, while Christian Arabs make up the remaining percentage.⁽⁹⁾

When discussing the issue of religion we should make a clear distinction between the very sensitive word, religion, and the word sect. Gulick has defined religion as a system of beliefs and symbolic acts concerned with the superhuman and with human beings, beliefs about their relationships with the superhuman. A sect is a group of people that has a religious identity but also has its own internal social structure and its own external political relationship with other sects or groups.⁽¹⁰⁾ Sectarian behaviour is, therefore, social behaviour and is quite distinct from symbolic religious behaviour concerning the superhuman. This distinction between religious and sectorian is not the same as the classification in which a religion is divided into "denominations" and these are subdivided into "sects".⁽¹¹⁾ Hence the majority, 90 per cent of the people in the West Bank are Muslims. It is necessary to shed light on the meaning of the word Islam. What does it mean to be a Muslim? What are the practices that differentiate between a Muslim and a non-Muslim?

7.3 Meaning of Islam

Every religion of the world has been named either after the name of its founder or after the community and nation in which that religion took its birth. For instance, Christianity takes its appellation from the name of its prophet, Jesus Christ; Buddhism, from the founder Gauthama Buddha; Zoroastrianism from the founder, Zoroaster; and Judaism, the religion of the Jews from the name of the tribe Judah, where it took its birth. Similarly is the case with other religions. But not so with Islam⁽¹²⁾ which has been described by Weber as the religion of world-conquering warriors, a knight order of disciplined crusaders.⁽¹³⁾

Islam is not associated with any particular person or group. It does not convey any such relationship, for it does not belong to any particular person, people, or country. Neither is it the product of any human mind nor is it confined to any particular community. Islam as a matter of fact is an attributive title. Whosoever possesses this attribute may he or she belong to any race, community, country or clan, is a Muslim.⁽¹⁴⁾ Who is a Muslim? Islam is an Arabic word connoting submission, surrender and obedience. As a religion, Islam stands for completed submission and obedience to Allah - and that is why it is called Islam. Another literal meaning of the word "Islam" is Peace, and this signifies that one can achieve real peace of body and mind only through submission and obedience to Allah. Such a life of obedience brings in peace of the heart and establishes real peace in the society at large. In contrast to the Muslim person described above, there is the man who, although born a Muslim and unconsciously remaining one throughout his life, does not exercise his

faculties of reason, intellect and intuition for recognizing his Lord and Creator and misuses his freedom of choice by choosing to deny Him. Such a man becomes an unbeliever in the language of Islam, a kafir. This word "Kafir" literally means to cover, to conceal: the man who denies God is called kafir (concealer) because he conceals by his disbelief what is inherent in his nature, and embalmed in his own soul for indeed his nature is instinctively imbued with Islam. Kufre is a form of ignorance, rather it is ignorance, pure and simple.⁽¹⁵⁾

To conclude this discussion of the definition of Islam, we can say that Islam is a universal religion and its subjective is to create and cultivate in man the quality and attributes of Islam.

7.4 Pillars of Islam

Hence the majority of the Palestinian population living on the West Bank are Muslims (over 90 per cent). It is important to give a clear description of the five pillars of Islam which are practiced by Muslims on the West Bank, as well as by Muslims all over the world. The five pillars of Islam are: the testimony of faith, prayer, alms, fasting, and pilgrimage to the holy city of Mecca. Some Muslims considered Jihad a holy war, a sixth pillar. These beliefs and pillars of Islam will be treated in some detail below due to their importance and daily practice by Muslim believers.

- Faith (Al Shahadah)

Faith is summarized in the confession or the two confessions, as it is sometimes called. There is no God but Allah and Mohammed is His Messenger. In this confession one has to confess that there is no God

but God (Allah), and that Mohammed is the apostle of God. It is belief in one God, the Creator. Mohammed is the last of all prophets and has brought to man the final revelation which God has for them.⁽¹⁶⁾ Word is not Mohammed's, but God's.

- Prayer (Salah):

Muslims pray five times a day; at dawn, at noon, in the afternoon, after sunset, and after dark. It seems that this timing is intended to avoid any suggestion at worshipping the sun. These prayers differ in their length and sections. A prayer section consists of certain phrases and passages from the Holy Quran recited by the worshipper in several attitudes; he stands, squats, bows, and faces his forehead on the ground. The morning prayer has two sections, the noon four, the afternoon four, the sunset three, the night four.

Prior to the prayer, a worshipper has to be ritually and physically clean. He has to wash. Some ablution demands a bath; otherwise it is enough to wash his face, hands, and feet. If no water can be found, sand or dust may be used.

The time of prayer is announced by the Muezzinn crying from the Minaret. This call may be as much as half an hour before the prayer is due. When praying, the worshipper has to be neat in his appearance, women have to have their head covered, both men and women have to wear perfumes, especially when praying in mosques with other worshippers. No garlic or onion should be eaten before going in to the Mosque in order to avoid the bad smell incurred by this kind of food.

All prayers can be said anywhere, in the open, in the homes, except the congregational Friday prayer especially for men which should be carried out only in the Mosque. Women are recommended to pray in their homes, even on Friday. If women pray in the Mosque they don't pray with men, but separately.

On the festivals, the feast of sacrifice (Id al Adha) and the breaking of the fast (Id al Fitr) the sermon follows the prayer in contrast to Friday prayer in which the two sections are preceded by the sermon.⁽¹⁷⁾

- Alms (Az-Zakat)

Legal alms or obligatory charity would be better names for this institution. A clear distinction should be made between Az-Zakat and Alms. Az-Zakat is an ordinance prescribed by the law. The Islamic State must fight those who refuse to pay Az-Zakat because they would then be considered apostates. Charity on the other hand is voluntary. It cannot be imposed by the law or by order of ruler.⁽¹⁸⁾ Az-Zakat is a tax collected and distributed among the poor by the State and not by the rich people, so that a poor man can maintain his dignity by not taking Az-Zakat from other people. To give a few examples of Az-Zakat, the owner of five to nine camels pays one sheep; of twenty five to thirty five camels, pays one female yearling camel; the owner of twenty dinars (gold) or two hundred dirhams (silver) which sums were held to be equal, had to pay five per cent on his capital.⁽¹⁹⁾

- Fasting (Siyam):

Fasting was instituted on the tenth day of the first month soon after the arrival of the prophet Mohammed in Medina, Saudi Arabia. A year and a half later, the fasting of the month of Ramadan was ordained. Fasting begins during the day-time from the time it is first possible to distinguish a white thread from a black to a sunset. The believer must abstain from food, drink, carnal intercourse, smoking, and even chewing gum. Children, pregnant women, the sick, aged, and travellers are excused, though travellers are expected to fast the same number of days at some other times. (20) Fasting lasts for a whole month. It is customary for a crier to go around the town calling on people to wake up for a final meal and drink before the day's fast begins.

Voluntary fasting is also common to Muslims. Some Muslims fast six days after Ramadan, while some fast 2 days every week continuously. Fasting is intended as an act of worship though one of the moral meanings behind it is to have the rich learn hunger and so learn to sympathise with the poor. Besides the abstinence from food, worshippers must abstain from all that is not good. So a worshipper should not sin, lie, lust and steal, etc. It is also against Islam to fast on days of Festivals like "Eid Al Fitr" and "Eid Al-Adha".

How does fasting during the month of Ramadan affect the running of businesses?

During the month of Ramadam, most businesses, if not all, private or

public, cut down their daily working hours. Businesses start working at an hour later than the normal working days. Employees leave their work an hour earlier than usual. Rand (1976) in his article "Learning to do Business in the Middle East" commented: ".....Ramadan is a month long Arab fasting period. Although employees are required to come to work, output historically falls to under 25 per cent of US levels during that month.⁽²¹⁾ School and university classes will be shortened by ten minutes for each class. Restaurants and dining rooms in areas where the majority are Muslims like Hebron, Nablus, will close their doors for business for the whole month of Ramadan. Whoever is caught eating in Muslim populated areas will be arrested by the police for the whole month of Ramadan and a fine should be paid for his / her release.

- Pilgrimage: (Al-Haj)

It is the duty of every Muslim to make a pilgrimage at least once during their lifetime if certain conditions are met. The would-be Haj or Pilgrim must be of age, of sound mind, and can afford the expense.

In pagan times, two religious rites were connected with Mecca. One is called little pilgrimage or "Umra" - when making Al Umra, one marches seven times around the Ka'ba and seven times between the slight eminences name Safa and Marwa. This kind of pilgrimage can be performed at any time but preferably in the seven month, Rajab. The second pilgrimage is the one to Arafat, a little hill some sixteen miles to the east of Mecca. This kind should be celebrated only in the twelfth month, Dhul Hijja. In the environs of Mecca, hunting and cutting of

wood is forbidden. In addition, pilgrims may not indulge in sexual intercourse, not even a husband and wife. Pilgrims may not wear rings for ornament, use perfumes, or cut their hair. The pilgrim, who avoids vice and wickedness, comes out of his sins as on the day his mother bore him.⁽²²⁾

Having talked about the beliefs, practices of Muslims, it will be interesting to draw a comparison of the role of religion among Arabs and Westerners. Patai compares the normative function, the psychological effect, the supernatural component, and the religiocentric aspect of religion in Middle Eastern cultures.

In the west the function of religion has shrunk considerably and covers only one area of life, but in the Arab world, it is the fundamental motivating force on which most cultural traits and behaviour rests; it is the hub from which all else radiates. Religious convictions influence practically every act during each moment in life. For example, Jennings in his book "Islamic Culture" tells of a train in Iran that stopped near sundown and delayed the journey until the faithful Muslims completed their prayers.⁽²³⁾

As mentioned earlier in this chapter many Muslims, for example, change their working times and daily schedules during the month of fasting. Government employees start almost an hour later in the day and leave an hour earlier during the month of Ramadan. A faithful Muslim has to leave his job for a period of time every day to do the ablutions, and the praying in Islam has always been a way of life. Many companies or firms even have their own Mosques.

In the Muslim view, there are few or no aspects of individual and social life that may not be considered as immediate expressions of Islam or the working out of its implications. According to the Muslim view, the religious commitment is seen as the central point from which all else flows. It is nearly impossible to draw the line between the facts of Islamic experience that are religious and those that are not. Indeed, many Muslim thinkers would insist that it is not legitimate to try to do so.⁽²⁴⁾ In the Arab world, as it is in the West Bank, religion is considered to be an asset, the psychological value of which cannot be overestimated, in that it lends an unfailing spiritual sustenance to the majority of the population. To sum up, the main differences between Islam and Western Christianity lies in their normative and psychological functions. This means that the crucial difference is more functional than doctrinal.⁽²⁵⁾

7.5 Islam and Economic Prosperity

The issue of Islam and economic prosperity has been the subject of discussion by many writers. It has caught the attention of Muslims and non Muslims, the economists and the historians, the sociologists and the anthropologists. The literature reveals that some of these scholars are sympathetic towards Islam by arguing that nothing in Islmaic teaching and traditions is opposed to the adoption of modern and progresive economic methods.⁽²⁶⁾ Others, on the contrary, have endeavoured to show that Islam forbids those who hold it to engage in any fruitful economic endeavours, thus dooming them to stagnation.⁽²⁷⁾ Indeed, since the publication of Weber's "The Protestant Sects and the Spirit of Capitalism", many writers and academicians have argued that Islam is in fact the main

impediment to the economic and industrial development in the Arab World.⁽²⁸⁾ Others went even further to blame all economic backwardness in the Arab World on Islam and its teachings. Contrary to these claims, is that of Robinson, who argues that Islamic teachings and Quranic values are not anti-ethical either to capitalism nor to socialism.⁽²⁹⁾ Another scholar, Robert, confirmed that trade and business activities have always had a significant place in the minds of Muslims.⁽³⁰⁾

However, it is beyond the scope of this section to indulge in the subject of Islam and capitalism or Islam and socialism, but rather to present a general overview of the various business practices that are allowed or prohibited in Islam. It is believed that such a discussion will help clarify some of the misconceptions about Islam and its responsibility either for economic prosperity or backwardness in the Arab and Muslim world.

First and foremost, it must be clear that the prescription of the Muslim religion are codified in one precise and well defined book called "The Quran - God's Word as conveyed to the Prophet Muhammad" and in the traditions which record what the prophet Muhammad is supposed to have said or done.⁽³¹⁾ In other words, traditions are the deeds and the practices of the prophet Muhammad. These, Quran and traditions represent Muslims code of behaviour.

With regard to Islam and its relationship to economic development the Islamic teachings reveal the following facts:

First: It is quite obvious that the Quran has nothing against private property, since it lays the rule for inheritance. For example, the Quran even advises that inequalities in this regard should not be challenged.⁽³²⁾ However, it denounces the habitual impiety of rich men and the use made of whatever is owned in the making of usury. Moreover, owners of private property are obliged to give alms. In addition, it should be clear that the right of ownership is limited by the condition that everyone has the right to life. This means that any person dying of hunger is justified in taking, even by force, the amount of food needed to keep him alive.⁽³³⁾ However, if a man takes more than he needs or if he sells what he takes he will then be considered a thief and deserves prosecution.

Second: Wage labour is a natural institution to which there is no objection in Islam.⁽³⁴⁾

Third: Economic activities such as the making of profits, trade and production, are looked upon with no less favour by Muslim tradition than by the Quran itself. In fact, the prophet regarded trade so highly it is reported that he said:

“The merchant who is sincere and trustworthy will (at the Judgement Day) be among the prophets, the just and the martyrs”.⁽³⁵⁾ He also said, “The Trustworthy merchant will sit in the shade of God’s throne at the Day of Judgement”,⁽³⁶⁾ and, “Merchants are the messengers of this world and God’s faithful trustees on earth”.⁽³⁷⁾

The importance of trade originated from the society in which Islam was

born, Mecca, which was the centre for capitalistic trade. Rodinson (1974) indicated that the inhabitants of Mecca, belonging to the tribe of Qurayshi caused their capital to fructify through trade and loans in a way that Weber would call rational.⁽³⁸⁾ Robert (1982). also indicated that trade and business activities have always had a significant place in the minds of Muslims.⁽³⁹⁾

However, it should be pointed out that certain commercial practices and goods are forbidden by Islam thus indicating that there is no *laissez-faire* in Islam. Prohibited practices include all that is fraudulent, games of chance (Maysir), and the making of *riba*, that is usury. On the other hand, forbidden goods include all products that are religiously regarded as impure like the selling or handling of spirits, wine, pigs and the selling of primary goods that should be free to all such as water, grass and fire. However, it is very common in the Muslim world to find people or even governments who put their savings in banks to gain interest or people who sell water and grass. These people however, are thought to be business and not religiously minded.

This concludes our discussion of Islam and its views on economic development. It is believed that the material presented thus far will help the reader to better conceptualise the issue of Islam and its relation to economic progress or economic stagnation in the Arab world.

7.6 Islam and Management

While nobody can claim that Islam provides a comprehensive theory in

Management, nevertheless, one cannot ignore a set of general guidelines that could be applied to management. These guidelines can be easily detected in the Quran and the sayings and deeds of the prophet Mohammed. Since the Quran is a book that is concerned with all aspects of human life, the existence of such guidelines is inevitable and natural.

Chiefly concerned with the organization of human activities and the regulations of individuals and groups responsibilities, these guidelines are aimed at the realization of individual and group interest without prejudicing the other. Needless to say, Islam provides a very delicate balance between the rights and the duties of both individuals and groups (e.g. the State).

According to the Islamic doctrine, the individual has certain rights and freedoms which are God-given and which cannot be denied or violated. Such rights include: the right to live, the right to have the basic amenities of life, the right to be safe and secure, etc. However, the rights of individuals and their duties and responsibilities towards themselves, their immediate families and toward society at large, are inextricably entwined. The individual's rights should not be at the expense of society's rights and *vice versa*.

Proceeding from the Islamic conceptualization of how human interrelation and interaction ought to be, one can cite certain Islamic perceptions and guidelines that could well be applied to management. These include:

1. Consultation (Al-Shura'a).

Consultation is an immensely important Islamic principle governing the administration and management of public interest. Prophet Mohammed himself was instructed by God to consult with his companions about various matters affecting the group. The following Quranic verse describes how the relations between the leader and the subordinates should be: "it is part of the mercy of God that thou dost deal gently with them; wert thou severe or harsh-hearted, they would have broken away from about thee: so pass over their faults, and ask for God's forgiveness for them, and consult them in affairs (of moment). Then when thou hast taken a decision, put thy trust in God, for God loves those who put their trust in Him".⁽⁴⁰⁾

The merit of consultation in management as well as in other spheres of collective activities cannot be overestimated. Consultation enhances the spirit of solidarity between employees and their managers. Moreover, consultation helps diminish whatever mutual suspicions and lack of confidence that may exist between the various parties. In addition, one should always remember the eternal wisdom which says that one should never regret to consult others. He simply has nothing to lose by doing so. The Islamic tradition of consultation stands diametrically opposite to authoritarianism.

2. Honesty (Sidk).

Honesty is the soul of every endeavour. Islam urges Muslims to be constantly mindful and aware of God's observation of them.

Employees in all spheres and all people at large ought to do the right thing, not simply because it is expedient for them but because doing otherwise would be a disobedience to God. The Quran describes those who forget God as transgressors and warns them against the hell fire.

As far as management is concerned, Islam urges Muslims to carry out tasks that are entrusted to them efficiently and completely. The prophet Mohammed said Allah likes that when a man does a certain task he does it well. The absence of honesty corrodes business and renders any enterprise precarious in the long run.

3. Firmness (Al-Hazm).

Firmness is necessary if one is to carry out responsibilities and execute instructions efficiently and effectively. Islam considers any slackness or negligence in carrying out one's tasks and responsibilities, especially public trusts, a great sin against God and His Messenger. The Quran admonishes believers not to be treacherous by not keeping their trusts. However, firmness should not be at the expense of fairness.

4. Mercy (Al-Rahmah).

One of the attributes of God is the merciful, the compassionate. Muslims ought to be merciful and beneficent, too. Mercy by men towards their fellow men is conditional for men to receive mercy from God (be merciful towards those on earth so that the One in the heavens will be merciful towards you). Mercy, however, cannot be treated in

isolation, but should rather be considered in the context of other principles. Mercy should not be at the expense of the sound principles of work. Excess leniency could be as harmful as excessive injustice.

5. Team-Work (Al-Amal Al-Jamaee).

Islam urges Muslims to hold fast unto the robe of God. By the same token, believers are instructed to adopt and put into practice the philosophy of teamwork and cooperation. Islamic teachings and traditions alike, urge believers to work and act in unity and avoid discordance and disunity. In one of the Quranic verses, God said:

“Hold fast. All together, by the rope which Allah stretches out for you and be not divided among yourselves; remember with gratitude Allah’s favour on you. For ye were enemies and He joined your hearts in love so that by His Grace ye became brethren: And ye were on the brink of the pit of fire and He saved you from it”. (41)

The Hadith says:

“Allah is with the Group” (42)

However, Islam also urges its believers not to interfere with others work. Believers are instructed not to indulge in matters that are not their concern and not to criticise others when they should not.

The issue of team work and cooperation is regarded very highly in Islam. The prophet had made it a rule that if anyone, for example, was

asked to pay some money and was unable to put up the whole amount, his neighbours, friends, colleagues and fellow citizens should help make up the amount by raising a subscription.

The researcher has experience of this first hand. The incident occurred when he was approached by one handicapped person who told him that he was unable to pay the costs of a wheel chair. The researcher then approached his colleagues in the Department of Management Studies at An-Najah University where they split the amount and everyone happily paid his share.

In another incident the researcher collected some money from his colleagues at An-Najah University to help one of the janitors at the University whose house had been gutted by fire.

The practice of the teamwork concept is as old as the concept itself. The practice is demonstrated by the following story:

“.....when the prophet Muhammad went on a journey with his companions they had to spend the night in a camping place. Upon their arrival, the prophet got up to collect some wood to start a fire for cooking the food. His companions protested and said:

“Oh messenger of Allah! Why should you bother yourself with that when all of us are here to do whatever may be necessary?”

Muhammad said: “No, no. It is my duty to do my share of whatever may have to be done”, and he went out and collected the fire wood from the jungle.⁽⁴³⁾

This story can be seen as an example of leadership where the leader shares and helps subordinates with their work when necessary.

6. Planning (Al-Takhteet). Planning is no stranger to Islam and the Islamic Civilization. If the current outlook of the Muslim world reveals otherwise, it is because of Muslims deviation from the true principle of Islam. Islam urges believers to plan in advance and then and only then put their trust in God. Imam Ali, one of the successors of prophet Mohammed said, "For your world, act as if you live eternally; and for your hereafter, act as if you will die tomorrow".
7. Supervision and follow-up. (Al-Ishraf and Al-Mutaba'ah). The role of a Muslim manager doesn't end at giving orders and instructions to his subordinates but continues along the entire operation. An effective control throughout all the stages of operation is not an option. It is a must. The life of the Prophet Mohammed is rich with examples of effective leading of men, and undoubtedly supervision is one of the conspicuous features of leadership as well as of management.

In addition to these virtues, Islam warns against certain vices in the domain of public and human interaction in general. Such vices as mendacity, insincerity, deception, cheating and embezzlement, nepotism, favouritism, inequality, bribery, back biting etc. are most harmful to society. Islam manages to fight these vices and prevent them from taking hold in the minds and hearts of men through education and the indoctrination of believers in veracity, honesty and moral straightness.

7.7 Main Cultural Themes

The study of cultural anthropology has created a strong interest in the totality of each culture. Culture is more than its functionally organized parts; it has a "soul" that gives direction to the functions. Each culture has not just one dominating pattern but a set of related underlying "themes".⁽⁴⁴⁾ A theme may be defined as a multi-individual value which controls behaviour or stimulates activity which is tacitly approved or openly promoted in a society. These themes may be formalized or unformalized, primary or symbolic, material or non-material.⁽⁴⁵⁾ Opler has pointed out that there are four ways to evaluate the importance of these themes: ⁽⁴⁶⁾

- 1) The number of expressions
- 2) The degree of concern when the theme is violated
- 3) The number of facets of the total system of ideas and practices in which it appears.
- 4) The limiting factors which control the number, variety and forces of a theme's expressions. However, a comprehensive treatment of all the cultural themes of Arabs is not possible. But an attempt will be made to describe those themes that would be of crucial importance. Any one who plans to work among the Arabs should definitely read some of the more comprehensive treatments of the values and themes of Arab culture.⁽⁴⁷⁾

Why is it so important to discuss the main cultural themes?

Luzbetak has emphasized that modern anthropological theory tells us that a society seems to have its own basic set of assumptions, values and goals. These are usually closely related

and would be possible to formulate a list of basic psychological "themes", permeating native thought, sentiment and action.....

Since missionary work consists essentially of communicating, convincing, and persuading, any light cast on methods of analyzing basic assumptions, values and goals of a people, would be a tremendous asset to the missionary.⁽⁴⁸⁾

What are the main cultural themes of the West Bank? The West Bank, like other Arab societies, has its own cultural themes like honour, hospitality, protection towards his / her kinsman, and protection and behaviour towards his guest.⁽⁴⁹⁾

- **Honor (Sharaf):**

Honor is not only the value of a person in his own eyes, but also in the eyes of his society.⁽⁵⁰⁾ The Arabic word for honour, Sharaf, comes from a root which implies "highness". All good achievements, whether realized by personal effort or by laborious efforts of other members of the kin-group to which a man belongs, build up his sharaf of or at least contributes to it. Thus a man's honour is largely determined by his own personal behaviour and by the behaviour of his kinsmen.⁽⁵¹⁾ There is a strong correlation between honour and group survival. Honourable behaviour is that which is conducive to group cohesion. The Arab family enjoys a solidarity that has resisted the changes of time.⁽⁵²⁾ The individual is expected to suppress his personal needs and interests if they interfere with those of the family. ⁽⁵³⁾In the Arab world the concept of honour is universal. It

finds its expression in many different spheres of life. To the Arabs, for example, honor involves maintaining the proper relationship between the sexes. A man of honour sees that his daughters and sisters do not act sensually towards men. Sexual crimes are considered crimes against honour.⁽⁵⁴⁾ In the West Bank as it is in the rest of the Arab world, and particularly Moslem world, any injury done to a man's honour must be revenged or else he becomes permanently dishonoured, and looked down upon by the people in his society. To illustrate the deep concern for honour, consider the following story:

In an argument a man claims that the sister of his antagonist is dishonouring the tribe in her relationship with a man. The man goes home, says to his sister, "The price of adultery is death" and stabs the girl to death, despite his presumed great love for her. The story is told to illustrate how young men should act, and clearly reflect a cultural value.⁽⁵⁵⁾

This is such a common story in the Arab world and there are many other stories of a similar context. Arabs will kill those dear to them rather than be disgraced. These stories necessarily have a profound influence on the Arab's code of conduct. To the Arabs, it is dishonourable to steal, cheat, betray one's own people, and to show disrespect for the elderly. To illustrate some of these themes consider the following stories:

"After the Israeli air attack in 1967, in order to 'save face', President Nassar of Egypt suggested to King Hussein that a communique to

be issued to the effect that American and British aircraft were collaborating with Israel and attacking Egypt from their aircraft carriers.⁽⁵⁶⁾ Similarly, in his attempt to "save face", a hungry Arab will often refuse an invitation to a meal, pretending that he has already eaten, for fear that the host may suspect that he was too poor to have enough food.⁽⁵⁷⁾ All the different kinds of honour in Arab life interlock to surround the Arab ego like a coat of armour.⁽⁵⁸⁾

To conclude this theme of honour, one can say that in the Arab world, all men want to have the honour of their friends and families. Everyone wants to be regarded as honourable. There are many things that men will do to build up their honour. Some will have a large family with many sons to build up their honour. Others will sacrifice many things in order to get a good education. Still others will go on a pilgrimage in order to increase their honour. Some people will even kill their beloved ones in order to maintain the honour of the family.⁽⁵⁹⁾ There is hardly a subject one can investigate, law, morality, family, life, social control, social change, politics, without at some point impinging on the domain of honour.⁽⁶⁰⁾ There will be a fuller discussion of "honour" later on in the analysis.

- **Hospitality (Diyafah):**

The theme of hospitality in the West Bank as in most of the Middle East is a Bedouin value that goes back to Biblical times. Because of the rules of hospitality, the fugitive becomes an honoured guest whom the host must protect even at the risk of his own life.⁽⁶¹⁾ Hospitality like other values, serves the goal of strengthening the group. The extending of

hospitality is inherently related to the systems of honour. One can show his unselfishness and his wealth, and increase his prestige. It can be dangerous to refuse Arab hospitality because this offends their honour by indicating that one thinks they might not be good hosts or might do one harm.⁽⁶²⁾ By practicing hospitality lavishly one enhances one's reputation. If a visitor is not received hospitably, the failure reflects on the entire tribe or village and blemishes its reputation.⁽⁶³⁾ To support this, let us consider the following observation:

“If an Arab host invites some people for dinner, most members of the tribe will be present, they offer their help, they socialize with the guests, and even invite them to their own homes. Such act is done in order to guarantee that the guests are well treated, well fed and well respected”.

In the West Bank as it is in most of the Arab world, the host seldom terminates a conversation or dismisses a guest, no matter how busy he may be. At the end of the visit elaborate phrases of thanks, compliments and good wishes are exchanged again between the host and the departing guests.⁽⁶⁴⁾

No matter how short the visit, the guest is never allowed to leave before he / she is offered some food or drink. The usage connected with food and drink have an almost ritual significance for exceeding a Westerner's idea of mere good manners and politeness.⁽⁶⁵⁾

Muna in his study on the Arab executive, found that Arab executives view hospitality and the shaking of hands with clients as one

way to enhance the business, while some Arab executives felt compelled to accept this sort of pressure in order to remain successful.⁽⁶⁶⁾

Regardless of the economic situation, of the host, Arab hosts make every effort to treat their guest in the most lavish manner possible. Even the poor man does his best to live up to this expectation, and will literally kill the last animal he possesses in order to provide a banquet for a guest who may be a complete stranger.⁽⁶⁷⁾ An Arab even goes out and borrows money from his friends and relatives in order to buy food and to have a banquet for a guest in order to live up to the expectation of his guest, tribe, and society.

- **The Family (Al-A'Elah):**

The family is another cultural theme that should not go unheeded. Most of the authors who deal with Arab society, have a section on the family.⁽⁶⁸⁾ Additionally, several articles in the journal literature are excellent introductions to the Arab family.⁽⁶⁹⁾ Of all the component features of Middle Eastern social structure the family is undoubtedly the most fundamental and most important.⁽⁷⁰⁾ In Arab society the welfare of the individual is far less important than that of the group; and the family, not the individual, is the social unit.⁽⁷¹⁾ In the Arab world, the family plays a major role in the formation of one's social identity. To the Arabs, family loyalty is a dominant cultural theme. Islam has emphasized the importance of loyalty to one's family. Islam says that one should always endeavour to please God in the first place and parents in the second place. In fact, Arabs went even further to attribute

one's success to his / her parents loyalty. Families play a major role in their children's decision making. They play a primary role in their educational and occupational aspirations.⁽⁷²⁾

- **Fatalism (Qadar):**

This is one of the Arab cultural themes that is often misunderstood. Fatalism means the degree to which an individual perceives a lack of ability to control his future.⁽⁷³⁾ Fatalism is supposedly typical of Middle Easterners and is often linked with Islam. Though often mentioned, it has not, until recently, been studied with enough precision to warrant discussion as a cultural theme.⁽⁷⁴⁾ Despite the widespread view which asserts that Arabs are fatalistic, and that this fatalism is an indirect contrast with the spirit of activity and initiative said to be characteristic of Anglo-Saxons and Europeans, Muna stressed that any generalization which implies that most Arabs (Muslims and Non-Muslims) are fatalistic regardless of their socio-economic and educational background, is academically irresponsible and misleading.⁽⁷⁵⁾ Muna stressed that past and present Islamic achievements demonstrate the use of long range planning and desire to understand and control nature and environment. These include to name a few examples, empire building in the past and economic development today, the utilization of technological, scientific and medical know-how; and the advancement of knowledge through education and research.⁽⁷⁶⁾

These are the main cultural themes of Arab society. There are other cultural themes of the Middle East that are distinctive and special. These themes and

others will be discussed throughout the analysis.

7.8 Summary

This chapter has been beneficial in giving a clear discussion of the main cultural themes existing in the West Bank as in most of the Arab world. Such themes as honour, hospitality, the family and fatalism were explained and illustrated. From the discussion it has appeared that honour is so important to the Arabs. Some people will even kill people they love in order to maintain and protect the honour of their families. Many people in the Arab culture give their utmost consideration to what other people think about them. They tend to be hospitable and generous. The chapter has also given a clear summary of the main religious practices and beliefs of the people on the West Bank as in most Arab cultures and societies. The majority of the population of the West Bank are Moslems, therefore, Islam is practiced by the people thus influencing their thinking, behaviour and lifestyle.

CHAPTER 7

Endnotes

1. Max Weber in Daniel Pipes In the Path of God: Islam and Political Power (New York: Basic Books Inc., Publishers, 1983), p. 48.
2. Hisham Sharabi, 1979, in Daniel Pipes In the Path of God: Islam and Political Power (New York: Basic Books Inc., Publishers, 1983), p. 203.
3. Tim Matheny Reaching the Arabs: A Felt Need Approach (California: William Carey Library, 1981), p.13.
4. Max Weber. Essays in Sociology in H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (Eds. and Trans.). (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1964), p.268.
5. Ibrahim Wadi Ata, The West Bank Palestinian Family. (London, KPI, 1986), pp.55-56.
6. Ibid., p.11.
7. Ibrahim Wadi Ata, the Impact of Westernising and other Factors on the Changing Status of Muslim Women, forthcoming in East Anthropologist, Vol.37,(2), 1984, pp.95-126.
8. E. Terry Prothro and Melikian "Social Distance and Social Change in the Near East", Sociology and Social Research 37, September 1952, p.10.
9. ITN News, November 1987.
10. John Gulick, Middle East, An Anthropological Perspective (California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1976), p.164.
11. Ibid., p.164.
12. Abdul Alaa Maududi, Towards Understanding Islam. (UK: Nottingham: Islamic Mission, 1980), p.9.

13. Max Weber, *op cit.*, p. 269.
14. Abdul A'lal Maududi, *op cit.*, 1980, p.9.
15. Ibid, p.9.
16. A.S. Tritton, Islam, Beliefs and Practices (London: Hutchinson and Company Limited, 1966), p. 23.
17. Muhammad Qutb, Islam: the Misunderstood Religion (Laitore: Islamic Publications Ltd., 1982), p. 85.
18. A.S. Tritton, *op cit.*, pp. 25-26.
19. Ibid., p.25.
20. Ibid., p. 26.
21. Edward J. Rand, Learning to do Business in the Middle East, The Conference Board Records, Vol.13, (2 February, 1976), pp. 49-51.
22. A.S. Tritton, *op cit.*, p.28.
23. George Jennings "Islamic Culture and Christian Missions" Practical Anthropology 18 May-June 1971), pp. 128-144.
24. Charles J. Adams, Islamic Religious Traditions in Binder (Ed.): Middle East, 1976, p.29.
25. Raphael Patai The Arab Mind (New York: Charles Scribner & Sons, 1973), p. 146.
26. Maxime Rodinson, Islam and Capitalism (Suffolk: Richard Clay, The Chaucer Press Ltd., 1974) p. 2.
27. Ibid., p.3
28. See Reinhard Bendix, Max Weber, An Intellectual Portrait (New York: Doubleday & Co.Inc., 1960) pp.103-16; H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (Eds) from Max Weber, Essay in Sociology (London: Lowe and Brydone Ltd., 5th Edition, 1964), pp.302-22.

- 29 Maxime Rodinson, *op cit.*, p.13.
- 30 D.S. Robert, Islam, A Westerner's Guide (Middlesex: The Hamlyn Publishing Co.Ltd., 1982), pp.145-52.
31. Maxime Rodinson, *op cit.*, p.186.
32. Ibid., p.15.
33. Ibid., pp.15-16.
34. Ibid., p.16.
35. Hadith
36. Hadith
37. Hadith
38. Maxime Rodinson, *op cit.*, p.28.
39. D.S. Robert, *op cit.*, pp.145-152.
40. Holy Quran, SIII 159.
41. Holy Quran, SIII 103.
42. Hadith
43. Hazrat M. Bashir, the Life of Muhammad, (Pakistan: The Ahmadiyya Muslim Foreign Mission Office), p.212.
44. Tim Matheny, *op cit.*, p.13.
45. Ibid., p. 13.
46. Morris E. Opler, "Themes as Dynamic Forces in Culture" American Journal of Sociology, 15,(November 1945), p.201.
47. Sania Hamedy, Temperament and Character of the Arab, (New York: Twoyne Publishers, 1960): Joe E. Pierce, Understanding the Middle East (Rutland, /Vermont: Charles and Tuttle, 1971); Morroe Berger, The Arab World Today (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Anchor Books, 1962), Chapter 5.

48. Louis J. Luzbetak "Missionary Anthropology" Practical Anthropology (September-October 1963), p.206.
49. The American University Area Handbook for Syria (Washington: US Government Printing Office, 1965), p.86.
50. Julian Pitt-Rivers "Honour and Social Status" in Honour and Shame: The Value of Mediterranean Society (Ed.) Jean G. Peristiany (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966) p.21.
51. Ahmed Abou-Zeid, Honour and Shame Among the Bedouins of Egypt, in Jean Peristiany (Ed.) Honour and Shame: The Value of Mediterranean Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966) p. 245.
52. Tim Matheny, *op cit.*, p. 15.
53. Raphael Patai, *op cit.*, p. 90.
54. The American University Area Handbook for Syria, *op cit.*, p.88.
55. Joe Pierce Middle East, p.50 quoting Fulinian, The Marsh Arab (Philadelphia; J.P. Lippincott, 1928) p.73.
56. Raphael Patai, *op cit.*, p.103.
57. Ibid., p. 105.
58. Ibid., p. 91.
59. Tim Matheny, *op cit.*, p. 163.
60. Richard T. Antoun "Anthropology" in the Study of the Middle East: Research and Scholarships in the Humanities and Social Sciences (Ed.) Leonard Binder (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1976), p. 180
61. Exod. 22:21; 23:9; Lev. 19:33; Deut. 10:18; 14:17.
62. Joe Pierce, *op cit.*, p. 153.
63. Sania Hamadyi, *op cit.*, p.79.
64. Tim Matheny, *op cit.*, p.18.

65. Ibid.
66. Farid A. Muna, *op cit.*
67. Tim Matheny, *op cit*, p. 18.
68. Raphael Patai, *op cit.*, Chapter 4, American University, Lebanon,
Chapter 7, Gulick The Arab Levant in The Cultural Middle East (Ed.)
Louise E. Sweet (Newhaven: Human Relations Area Files Press
(1971) pp. 103-110; Hamady, Arabs pp.87-96; George J. Jennings
"Islamic Culture and Christian Mission" in Practical Anthropology 18
(May-June 1971), pp. 133-36.
69. John Elder "Family Life in Shiah Islam" Muslim World 18, (July 1928)
pp. 250-55; Ilse Lichtenstadter "An Arab Egyptian Family " in Middle
Eastern Journal 6, (Autumn 1952) pp. 379-399; Dorothy F. Beck
"The Changing Muslim Family of the Middle East" Marriage and
Family Living, 19 (November 1957) pp.340-347; Karmi "The
Family as a Developing Social Group in Islam", Asian Affairs 62,
(February 1975 pp.61-68).
70. Raphael Patai, *op cit.*, p. 84.
71. Sania Hamady, *op cit.*, p.87 and Joe Pierce, *op cit.*, p.61.
72. Aidak Tomeh "The Impact of Reference Groups on the Educational and
Occupational Aspirations of Women College Students". Journal of
Marriage and the Family 30, (February 1968), pp. 102-110.
73. Everett M. Rogers and Svenning, Lynne. Modernisation Among
Peasants: The Impact of Communications. (New York: Holt, Rinehart
and Winston, 1969), p 273.
74. John Gulick, *op cit.*, p.235.
75. Farid A. Muna, *op cit.*, p.94.
76. Ibid, p.96.

CHAPTER 8

EDUCATION IN THE WEST BANK

"Say: My Lord! Increase me in knowledge".

(Holy Quran XX: 114) (1)

"Because of the loss of most of their land, which was the means of livelihood for the majority of Palestinians, they increasingly turned to the only thing that was left for them to invest in - their minds" (2)

8.1 Introduction

Education has played two principal but opposing roles in the Palestinian experience. On one hand, education has been used by Israel as a tool to control the Palestinians under its domination. But on the other hand, education has been used by the Palestinians as a means to survive, to develop and to express their identity and their rights.⁽³⁾ Due to the importance of education in the hearts of the Palestinians, and in order to give a better understanding of the situation in the West Bank, this chapter aims to present the reader with a clear picture of education in the West Bank. Characteristics, aspects, problems and obstacles facing education in that region will all be explored and discussed.

8.2 General Background.

It is believed that after the 1948 Arab Israeli war, Palestinians who were dispersed throughout the world appear to have placed a high premium on education. As a result, parents encouraged their children to go to school as education was perceived as a permanent portable commodity which could be put to use in whatever place a person settled. Therefore, it is believed that

the loss of property in Palestine enhanced the feeling that education was a better investment, a permanent possession which could not be usurped by alien forces. Fasheh (1984) in his study on "The Impact of Occupation on Education" has said:

"Because of the loss of most of their land, which was the means of livelihood for the majority of Palestinians, they increasingly turned to the only things that was left for them to invest in - their minds".⁽⁴⁾

In light of its importance, it is not uncommon to find many member of a Palestinian family working to support a brother or sister studying in a university. This also explains why the number of university graduates among the Palestinians relative to their population is one of the highest in the world, possibly the third highest.⁽⁵⁾ However, one of the major problems with Palestinian higher education is that it is not geared to the needs and interests of the Palestinians as much as to the needs of individuals of other countries.⁽⁶⁾

Islam, is another factor which added impetus for education. Indeed, the acquiring of knowledge is one of the most basic and serious obligations incumbent upon Muslims. Islam is, more than any other religion, a way of knowledge.

Within the Islamic tradition, education is not meant to be a male prerogative since God has purposely given both men and women the capacity to acquire knowledge as well as disseminate it.

In Islam, every man and woman is obliged to contribute whatever possible to the welfare, prosperity and advancement of society. The Muslim woman

in addition to playing the roles of daughter, sister, wife and mother within her family, is entitled - indeed enjoined by the revealed law to play certain other roles outside the family.⁽⁷⁾ In order for her to take her rightful place as a helpful and productive member of society she must first receive an education.⁽⁸⁾

Moreover, the duty to learn is so crucial in Islam that no exemptions are made from it, neither on the basis of age nor sex.⁽⁹⁾ Numerous verses of the Quran and sayings of the prophet exhort Muslims to learn to their full capacity and promise rich rewards to those who comply. In fact, one of the 114 surá chapters in the Quran is entitled "Qalam" which means the pen.⁽¹⁰⁾ Another surá is entitled "Alaq" which means read or proclaim. This surá was the first direct revelation to prophet Muhammad. The first five verses of it stress the importance of reading. They say "Read in the name of thy Lord and Cherisher who created man out of a mere clot of congealed blood: Read! and thy Lord is most bountiful, He who taught (the use of) the pen, taught man what he knows not...."⁽¹¹⁾ The other verses of the Quran and sayings of the prophet Muhammad which urge Muslims to seek and acquire knowledge include: "Say, My Lord! Increase my knowledge",⁽¹²⁾ and the verses "God will exalt to high rank those among you who believe , and those who have knowledge",⁽¹³⁾ and the Hadiths "Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave"⁽¹⁴⁾ and "The search for knowledge is the duty of every Muslim, male or female".⁽¹⁵⁾

Examining these verses and Hadith, one can find that the duty to learn and acquire knowledge is very vital in Islam. Such duty is not limited to a specific age or sex group. Teachings categorically challenge the most

grossly misunderstood and misrepresented aspects of Muslim women. They tell us that the picture of these womens family life, social life and social rights are not as Westerners often paint it..

The support for education by Islam is clearly manifested today in the existence of many Islamic institutions, and religious colleges. Among them is Al-Azhar, the most famous prestigious religious university in Cairo or probably in the Middle East. Al-Azhar University like many other universities throughout the Arab and Islamic world is devoted to the study of traditional Islamic learning in all its aspects.

8.3 General Education in the West Bank

The Palestinian educational system in the West Bank operates according to the Jordanian system existing before the occupation. Three different systems function in the occupied West Bank: government, UNRWA, and private. There is a three-stage system of public education in the West Bank:

1. Elementary - six years
2. Preparatory - three years
3. High School (secondary) - three years.

Today there are more than 1200 different schools in the West Bank. The Statistical Abstract of Israel (1986) indicated that there are 826 government institutions and 100 UNRWA schools operating in the West Bank.

Administratively, the educational system in the West Bank is divided into six districts: Hebron, Bethlehem, Jericho, Ramallah, Nablus, Jenin and Tulkarem. However, East Jerusalem is not included in those districts with regard to education because Jerusalem was officially annexed to Israel right after 1967.

Each of the districts mentioned is headed by an Arab director of education. However, all Arab directors are working under the direct supervision of the Israeli Officer of Education, assigned by a number of people all of whom are Jewish. The Israeli officer takes full responsibility of all matters related to education, such as the hiring and sacking of personnel, assigning of textbooks, new programmes, and new schools construction, etc.(16)

8.4 Education: Demographic Characteristics

The statistical Abstract of Israel (1986) reported that West Bank Palestinian population aged 14 years and over are dramatically increasing their year of schooling. See Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 West Bank Population Aged 14 years and over by Years of Schooling (percentage)

Year	Years of Schooling					Grand Total N = 100
	Illiterate 0	Elementary 1-6	Preparatory 7-8	Secondary 9-12	Higher Education 13+	
1970	47.0	26.4	10.5	14.7	0.9	322.9
1975	37.0	25.8	12.0	19.8	5.4	366.9
1980	28.5	26.8	12.7	24.7	7.3	401.0
1983	26.6	25.1	13.5	26.1	8.7	420.3
1984	25.7	24.4	13.7	26.8	9.4	436.3
1985	25.2	23.5	14.0	27.2	10.1	443.8

Source: Statistical Abstract of Israel, No. 37, 1986, pp.730-733.

Looking at Table 8.1 we will notice the following:

1. Decline in the percentage of illiteracy. In the year 1976 the percentage of illiterate individuals among this age group was 47.5 per cent, while it declined almost by half in the year 1985 to reach 25.2 per cent. This finding

is not surprising given that education is now compulsory for all children up to the age of sixteen. Table 8.1 demonstrates the effect of this legislation in a very clear fashion. Another reason for the decline of illiteracy could be attributed to the widespread development of literacy programmes throughout the West Bank. Educational programmes directed at the eradication of illiteracy were the result of non-organised efforts made by concerned individuals and charitable and religious organisations. Such programmes have also been inaugurated by Birzeit University with a Literacy and Adult Education Centre in 1976 which aimed at:⁽¹⁷⁾

- (a) Conducting field studies to determine the prevalence of illiteracy among Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza.
 - (b) Studying the drop out problems among elementary school children and its relationship to illiteracy.
 - (c) The training of teachers who plan to work in literacy programmes.
 - (d) The design and development of educational material appropriate to the needs of adult pupils.
2. A slight decrease in the percentage of these individuals with elementary education. In 1970, the percentage of those with elementary education was 26.4 while it declined in 1985 to reach 23.5 per cent. This could be attributed to the drop out rate caused by the exploitation of child labour in Israel. (18).
 3. An increase in the percentage of those with preparatory education where it reached 14 per cent in 1985.
 4. A sharp increase in the percentage of those with secondary education (9-12 years). In 1985 the percentage (27.2) almost doubled that in 1970. Again this indicates a positive trend towards education by Palestinians.
 5. Interestingly, the percentage of those individuals with higher education

in the year 1985 rose to 10.1 per cent, almost 10 times that of 1970.

Looking at the Table one notices a steady increase in the percentage of those with higher education.

This finding, however, is supported by other findings where it was stated that the number of university graduates among the Palestinians relative to their population is one of the highest in the world, possibly the third highest.⁽¹⁹⁾

In the section to follow, the researcher aims to give a better picture of educational attainment by both males and females. It is believed that by doing so a better understanding of female education in the West Bank could be presented.

8.4.1. Male Education

The results published in the Statistical Abstract of Israel (1986) indicated that there is a sharp increase in the number of years of schooling attained by male Palestinians aged 14 and over. It also indicates that the percentage of individuals with university education rose sharply while at the same time there is a sharp decline in the illiteracy rate among this age and sex group. See Table 8.2.

Studying the data in Table 8.2 one can draw the following conclusions:

1. A sharp decline in the percentage of individuals not attending school.

The findings indicate that the decline in 1985, is two thirds of that in 1970. Consequently, one would expect the prevalence of illiteracy among Palestinians living in the occupied West Bank to be greater than

is suggested in Tables 8.1 and 8.2. This finding is not surprising given that education is now compulsory for all children up to the age of sixteen, and to the effect of literacy programmes aimed at eradication of illiteracy among Palestinians.

Table 8.2 West Bank Males Aged 14 and Over by Years of Schooling (percentage).

Year	Years of Schooling					Grand Total N = 100
	Illiterate 0	Elementary 1-6	Preparatory 7-8	Secondary 9-12	Higher Education 13+	
1970	27.8	34.8	14.7	21.3	1.4	153.7
1975	20.2	30.5	14.7	26.0	8.6	177.2
1980	14.2	28.8	15.1	30.9	11.0	193.3
1983	13.5	26.4	15.8	31.9	12.4	203.8
1984	12.8	25.5	16.1	32.7	12.9	212.0
1985	13.4	24.5	16.2	32.5	13.7	215.1

Source: Statistical Abstract of Israel, No.37, 1986 pp.730-733

2. A decline in the percentage of individuals attending elementary schools.

This can be attributed to the drop out rate among young males who join the tempting labour in Israel.

3. An increase in the percentage of individuals with preparatory education.

Again this could be attributed to the increase in the number of schools in the West Bank and as a result of the positive attitude of Palestinians towards education.

4. An increase in the percentage of individuals with secondary education.

In the year 1970, only 21.3 per cent of the male population aged 14 and over had secondary education while in 1985 the percentage increased to reach 32.5 per cent. This increase could be attributed to the need of those individuals in pursuing their higher education taking into consideration that a student needs to produce secondary school

examination certificate (Tawjihi) in order to enrol in local Arab or foreign universities.

5. A sharp and steady increase in the percentage of those with higher education. This could be attributed to the availability of universities and higher education in the West Bank where there are eight institutions of higher education operating in the West Bank. Another reason could be the lack of jobs in the West Bank and the travel restrictions imposed on Palestinians, mainly young people by both Israel and Jordan. On the one hand, Israel does not want Palestinian youths to travel abroad fearing they might engage in hostile organisations. So Israel rather maintain dominance on these people. On the other hand, Jordan discourages Palestinians from leaving the West Bank and the occupied territories for nationalistic reasons. Jordan wants the Palestinians to stay in their homes and to maintain their identities. Regarding employment, it is worth noting that for any individual to get a government professional job he / she needs to produce at least a secondary school certificate (Tawjihi). Such demand caused the majority of individuals to pursue higher education. However, there will be a fuller discussion of higher education in the West Bank in a subsequent section.

8.4.2 Female Education

A more accurate picture of female education in the West Bank could be gained by referring to the statistics in the Statistical Abstract of Israel. Looking at the statistics in Table 8.3, we notice that there is a sharp decline in the percentage of illiterate females aged 14 and over. The Statistical Abstract of Israel also reports a sharp and steady increase in the percentage

of females with higher education. See Table 8.3.

The findings in Table 8.3 indicate that the percentage of illiterate females aged 14 and over was reduced by nearly one half in 1985 while the percentage of females with higher education rose six times in 1985 compared to 1970 when it was only 0.5 per cent. This is not surprising due to the proliferation of literacy classes and centres throughout the West Bank where they have expanded rapidly from 1977-1981.⁽²⁰⁾ There is also an obvious increase in the percentage of females with elementary, preparatory and secondary education over the years.

Table 8.3 West Bank Females Aged 14 and Over by Years of Schooling (percentage)

Year	Years of Schooling					Grand Total N = 100
	Illiterate 0	Elementary 1-6	Preparatory 7-8	Secondary 9-12	Higher Education 13+	
1970	65.1	18.9	6.7	8.8	(0.5)	169.2
1975	52.8	21.5	9.5	13.9	2.3	189.7
1980	41.8	24.8	10.5	19.0	3.4	207.7
1983	38.9	23.8	11.4	20.6	5.3	216.7
1984	37.9	23.5	11.5	21.1	6.0	224.3
1985	36.3	23.0	11.9	22.2	6.6	228.7

Source: Statistical Abstract of Israel, No.37, 1986, pp. 730-733.

The increase in female higher education was also motivated by the accessibility of university education locally. Due to the social norms and traditions some Arabs are sometimes reluctant to send their daughters for university education away from their homes and country. Another reason for the increase in the percentage of females in education could be attributed to the widespread belief that higher education may be an asset in finding an educated husband. It is true that Palestinian men nowadays and especially

those with higher education tend to seek partners with higher education.⁽²¹⁾ However too much education for females may sometimes prove counter productive and an impediment to marriage.⁽²²⁾ This is especially true among the lower classes, since educated professional men of that class tend to seek partners among members of the middle class, while those with less education prefer less educated women who will make more obedient wives.⁽²³⁾ Despite all the odds, the number of female university graduates among Palestinians is higher than that among other Arabs.⁽²⁴⁾ In 1974 in the Arab nation, despite the great strides made towards providing education for females through literacy campaigns and educational institutions, 20 million out of 24 million Arab children had illiterate mothers.⁽²⁵⁾ There will be a full discussion of the subject of higher education later on in this chapter.

Before moving on to the discussion of other items, it is worth noting that the differences in findings between the sexes in the West Bank as indicated in Tables 8.2 and 8.3 are quite obvious. For example, the Tables indicated that the percentage of illiteracy for male individuals for the year 1985 was 13.4 per cent, this percentage is nearly one third of the percentage of illiteracy among females in the same age group.

Such findings advocates other findings which pointed out that the representation of males in adult literacy classes is one-fourth to one-eighth the expected size.⁽²⁶⁾ Where some of the reasons for males reluctance to enrol in literacy classes were basically either social or economic.

Comparing the results in Table 8.2 and 8.3 one will also notice a gap between the findings for males with 9-12 years of education compared with that of females in that category, 32.5 per cent and 22.2 per cent respectively.

It is believed that the differences in findings can be attributed to the early age of marriage especially for females, and to the unavailability of secondary schools which makes many parents reluctant to send their daughters to schools in other towns and cities in the West Bank. For higher education, the findings indicated that 13.7 per cent of males had attained higher education in 1985 compared with only 6.6 per cent of females in that same year and category. These findings are not surprising in the light of the early age of marriage for females and to the reluctance of husbands to let their wives pursue their higher education after marriage.

8.5 Problems and Obstacles Facing General Education

Although the West Bank has numerous institutions and schools operating, general education still faces specific problems including:⁽²⁷⁾ poor teaching conditions, inadequate facilities, outdated curricula, limited school construction, inadequate textbooks, high drop out rate, poor library and laboratory facilities. It was found that in 1975-1976 only 50 per cent of the public schools in the entire West Bank had a one room laboratory and one room library each.⁽²⁸⁾ The need for a tight budget adds to these problems as is the case with UNRWA education.⁽²⁹⁾ However, the most serious problem is the constant disruption of education such as the closure of institutions for long periods and the arrest of students and teachers alike. These problems were emphasised by many writers and academicians. Fasheh (1986) in his study on the impact on education states:

“Given the importance of education to the Palestinian community, the Israeli administrations disruptive tactics aimed at education would pose threat to any community - one of particularly grave concern”.⁽³⁰⁾

8.6 Higher Education in the West Bank

There are several major colleges and universities operating in the West Bank.

All these colleges and universities were established or transformed into a college or university after the 1967 Arab Israeli War. These universities and colleges include: Birzeit University, Bethlehem University, An-Najah National University, Hebron University (previously religious college), College of Science and Technology, College of Islamic Studies, College of Arts for Girls, College of Medical Professions, Khaduri Agricultural Institute, Teachers Training Institute, Al-Rawdah College, Hebron Polytechnic Institute and Al-Aroub Agricultural Institute. (See Table 8.4)

Despite being young and small, the academic orientation of these institutions varies to some extent.

In order to coordinate the work among these universities and institutions of higher learning in the West Bank, Majlis Al-Taaleem Al-Ali, that is the Council for Higher Education was established in the 1970s. Its members are comprised of administrators from different local universities and colleges, professionals, academicians, and religious and national figures. The Council, however, is still struggling to establish itself and to achieve its objectives as a viable body of higher learning in the West Bank in light of the tremendous pressures imposed on it as a result of the prolonged closure of universities and colleges throughout the West Bank.

Among the other advantages that came about as a direct result of the establishment of colleges and universities in the West Bank is that these institutions opened their doors to students from low and middle income families who are unable to pursue higher education abroad. It is worth noting that the annual fee for education in the West Bank is as low as £200 a year. The other main advantage is that these institutions open their doors to students who are banned from travelling abroad such as the released

Table 8.4 Faculties at West Bank Colleges and Universities

Institution	Location	Arts	Science	Engineering	Faculty		Nursing	Religious Studies	Other
					Business Economics Commerce	Education			
Birzeit Univ.	Birzeit/Ramallah	X	X	X	X	X			Middle Eastern Studies
Bethlehem Univ.	Bethlehem	X	X		X		X		
An-Najah Univ.	Nablus	X	X	X	X	X		X	Agriculture Journalism
Hebron Univ.	Hebron	X	X			X		X	
College of Science and Technolgy	Jerusalem		X				X		
Al-Rawdah College	Nablus		X		X				
College of Islamic Studies	Jerusalem	X						X	
Khaduri Agric. Institute	Tulkarem					X			Agriculture
Arab College of Medical Prof.	Ramallah						X		
Teacher Training Institute	Ramallah	X	X			X			
College of Arts	Jerusalem	X							
Hebron Polytechnic Institute	Hebron			X					Ceramics
Al-Aroub Agric. Institute	Al-Aroub/ Hebron								Agriculture

X = Area of specialisation

Sources: These data are derived from literature compiled by the researcher from: Varsen Aghabekian, PhD Dissertaion 1988, p.17, Fathiyya Nasru, West Bank Education in Government Schools 1967-77, Journal of Refugee Studies, Vol.2, No.1, 1989, Munir Fasheh (1986) Impact on Education, and Universities and Colleges Brochures and Publications.

detainees and to women mainly because of accessibility. As has been said before Palestinians are unlikely to send their daughters and wives to pursue higher education away from their homes. See Table 8.5 for a profile of full time students at eight major institutions for a given year, 1985-1986.

Looking at Table 8.5 one can see that the number of students in the year 1985-86 at eight local institutions rose dramatically to about 10,000 students compared with 1,086 in 1975-76 and 7,478 in 1981-82.⁽³¹⁾ Interestingly, the data in the table indicates that 41 per cent of the students are females. This finding is corroborated by other findings where about 40 per cent of students at higher institutions are women.⁽³²⁾ Yet while it is true that higher education has advanced in the West Bank, it has advanced much more in the East Bank (Jordan) in terms of student enrolment and the continuity and diversity of various programmes offered. To give an example, schools in

Table 8.5 Profile of Full Time Students at Eight Higher Education Institutions in the West Bank for the year 1985-86.

Institution	Number of Students		
	Male	Female	Total
Birzeit University	1634	770	2404
Bethlehem University	681	516	1179
Najah University	1746	1261	3007
Hebron University	1090	656	1746
College of Science & Technology	401	199	600
College of Islamic Studies	175	190	365
Arab College of Medicine	37	118	155
College of Arts	-	300	300
TOTAL	5764	4010	9774

Source: Varsen Aghabekian, Perception of effectiveness indicators for the development of an instrument for evaluating colleges and universities on the occupied West Bank, PhD Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1988, p.13.

almost all professional fields (medicine, engineering, agriculture etc.) have been established in Jordan, while only two professional schools, engineering and nursing, have been established in the West Bank. (33)

8.7 Obstacles Facing Higher Education in the West Bank

Professor/Colonel Milson, who resigned his post as the Civilian Administrator of the West Bank and Gaza in September 1982, once wrote in Commentary, that freedom of expression was guaranteed in the occupied territory. He commented:

“The Israeli authorities proclaimed that they did not care what the Arabs in the territories said or what political views they espoused and that nobody would be punished for expressing his views. This was Israeli policy and also Israeli practice - and it was a practice for which Israelis took great moral credit having brought the blessing of freedom of expression to the West Bank”. (34)

Despite that assertion of freedom of expression and despite the importance of higher education to the people of the West Bank, several obstacles still remain in the way of development. These obstacles and problems pose a devastating threat to the continuity, expansion and achievement of higher education goals in the West Bank.

Among the major obstacles and one of the most serious facing higher education in the West Bank is the continuous closure of higher institutions. The worst of these closures took place in January 1988 when the Israeli Minister of Defence, Yitzhak Rabin, ordered all universities and colleges and even high schools and kindergartens closed. High schools and kindergartens were reopened a year later, but not universities and colleges.

Ever since, Palestinian lecturers and professors have been engaged in underground teaching of their students. Churches, mosques, homes and offices were all used as teaching grounds. See Table 8.6 for more details on types of closures.

Aghabekian (1988) in her study on Palestinian higher education in the West Bank, summarised the main obstacles as:⁽³⁵⁾

Table 8.6 Closure of Palestinian Universities by Israeli Military Occupation

Examples of Closure of Palestinian Universities by Israeli Military Occupation 1982, 1984, 1988-present		
University	Type of Closure	Date of Closure
(1) An-Najah Univ. Nablus	(1) Military Road Blocks	Jan.11, 1983 - June 26, 1983 Feb.18, 1983 - Apr.10, 1983 Apr.17, 1983 13,17,19,21,23,26,29 30 November 1983 27 December 1983
	(2) Military Order (University declared a military zone)	Aug.1, 1983 - Dec. 1983 June 6, 1983 - Sept.4, 1983 January 1988 - present (Two months after the beginning of Intifada - now)
(2) Birzeit Univ. Birziet/Ramalla	(1) Military Order (University declared a military zone)	Mar.26, 1979 - Apr.1, 1979 May 3, 1979 - July 21, 1979 Nov.14, 1980 - Nov.22, 1980 Nov.4, 1981 - Jan..4, 1982 Feb.16, 1982 - Apr.16, 1982 July 8, 1982 - Dec.8, 1982 Feb.2, 1984 - May 2, 1984 Apr. 2, 1984 - May 2, 1984
(3) All Universities	(1) Military Order (Universities declared military zones)	January 1988 - present (Just two months after the beginning of Intifada till now)

Source: Raja Shehadah, Occupier's Law, Israel and the West Bank
Institute of Palestine Studies, 1985, p.162, with modifications
by the author.

1. Forced closure of institutions.
2. Political constraints stemming from the prevailing conditions on the West Bank basically through actions against colleges and universities exercised by the Israeli Military occupation. These include censorship, taxation, disruption in the process of instruction and curriculum development, inability of institutions to receive building permits and different forms of harassment of faculty and students.
3. Financial constraints caused by the lack of fixed permanent funding resources. This problem has led to the inadequacy of facilities including buildings, laboratories, classrooms, recreational areas, all hindering further expansion.
4. Internal operational problems, insufficiency of available qualified personnel, obscurity of rules and regulations and the lack of coordinated plan for development among the different institutions of higher education.
5. Adding to the list of problems is the fact that most institutions are owned and controlled by one family interest. Favouritism in daily operation of institutions, low levels of education, lack of freedom of expression afforded to students and faculty, and discrepancy in societal needs and types of education afforded at Palestinian institutions. It is worth noting that this latest problem was also mentioned by Fasheh (1984) when he wrote "unfortunately, however, in the absence of a Palestinian State, Palestinian higher education is not geared to the needs and interests of the Palestinians as much as to the needs of individuals and other countries". (36)

This concludes the discussion of higher education and the major problems

being faced. Moreover, it is worth stressing that some of the problems and repressive tactics implemented by the Israeli authorities against institutions of higher learning in the West Bank contradict that assertion of “freedom of expression” made by Professor/Colonel Milson. (37)

8.8 Summary

This chapter has provided the reader with a valuable insight to the Palestinian education in the West Bank on both lower and higher levels. Its purpose was not to glorify the Palestinians and their institutions in their struggle for learning, knowledge and survival, but rather to shed light on education its characteristics and main developments. It is evident from the material presented that Palestinians, males and females enjoy high levels of education. Yet it is true that the Palestinian schools and institutions are struggling for existence. Their mission has been hampered by internal and external pressures alike. These pressures have been highlighted and discussed.

The chapter has also introduced us to the major institutions of higher learning in the West Bank. Their main faculties have been defined. Yet the crippling restrictions imposed on these institutions may end up hampering the development of the Palestinian community at large hence education is regarded as one of the key resources of the Palestinian people.

CHAPTER 8

Endnotes

1. Holy Quran, XX : 114.
2. Munir Fasheh, Impact on Education. In Naseer Aruri (Ed.)
Occupation: Israel Over Palestine (London: Zed Books Ltd.,
1984), p.295.
3. Ibid., p.308.
4. Ibid.
5. See, for example, M. Hallaj in Emile Nakhleh (Ed.) A Palestinian
Agenda for the West Bank and Gaza (Washington, DC. American
Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1980) and Mari,
Arab Education in Israel, p. 109.
6. Munir Fasheh, *op cit.*, p. 309.
7. Darlene May, Women in Islam: Yesterday and Today, in Cyrian K.
Pullapilly Islam in the Contemporary World (Notre Dame, Indiana
Cross Roads Books, 1980), p.384.
8. Ibid., p. 385
9. Ibid., p. 366.
10. Holy Quran, S.LXVIII
11. Holy Quran, S.XCVI 1-5
12. Holy Quran, XX : 114
13. Holy Quran, LVIII : 11
14. Hadith
15. Hadith
16. Munir Fasheh, *op cit.*, p.299.
17. Ahmed M. Baker, Informal Education Programmes, Journal of

Refugee Studies, Vol.2, No.1., 1989, p.103.

18. See Paul Harper, Labouring Under Oppression: Poles and Palestinians, and Ibrahim Wada Ata The West Bank Palestinian Family, 1986.
19. See Hallaj, *op cit.*, , p. 109.
20. Ahmed M. Baker, *op cit.*, , p. 104.
21. Yvonne Haddad, Palestinian Women: Patterns of Legislation and Domination in Khalil Nakhleh and Elia Zureik (Eds.) The Sociology of the Palestinian (London: Groom Helm, 1980), p. 154.
22. Ibid., p.154
23. Ibid., p.154
24. Ibid., p.154
25. Al-Watan al Arabi Am Alfayan, p.34 cited by Khalili al Marah, - p.53.
26. Ahmed M. Baker, *op cit.*, p.104.
27. Fathiyya Nasru, West Bank Education in Government Schools 1967-1977. Birzeit University, 1977, p.22.
28. Ibid.
29. Friedhelm Ernst, Problems of UNRW Schools Evaluation of Vocational Training, Journal of Refugee Studies, Vol.2 No. 1, 1989, pp. 88-97.
30. Munir Fasheh, *op cit.*, , p. 309.
31. Meron Benvenisti, The West Bank Handbook (The West Bank Data Base Project, 1986), p.68.
32. Central Bureau of Statistics, Palestinian Statistical Abstract, No.4, 1982, p.88-97.
33. Naseer Aruri "Repression in Academia: Palestinian Universities

- versus the Israeli Military", Arab Perspective (May 1981), p.31.
34. Menachem Milson "How to Make Peace with Palestinians"
Commentary, May 1981, p.31.
35. Varsen Aghabekian, Perception of Effectiveness Indicators for the
Development of an Instrument for Evaluating Colleges and
Universities on the Occupied West Bank, PhD Dissertation,
University of Pittsburgh, 1988, p. 23.
36. Munir Fasheh, *op cit.*, p. 309
37. Menachem Milson, *op cit.*, p.31

CHAPTER 9

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

9.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at presenting the methods, techniques and procedures utilised in this study. It will identify, analyse, and evaluate the major types of research design employed. In order to fulfill this task, this chapter will contain six major sections. The first discusses the objectives of the study. The second presents the major types of research design used. The third section deals with the research methods. The fourth gives an explanation of the instrument. The fifth section will cover the achieved sample. The final part of this chapter will discuss the administration of the survey.

9.2 Review of Objectives

The main objective of this study is to explore and examine the significant aspects of West Bank managers attitudes, beliefs and culture.

Within the framework of the general objective, this study aims to examine the following aspects:

1. The personal characteristics of Arab managers in the West Bank.
Managers characteristics such as their age, sex, marital status, level of education, languages spoken, and length of service will all be examined.
2. Business characteristics. This study aims to look at the various characteristics of business which managers operate. Characteristics to be examined include the size, age, type of ownership and number of females employed.

3. The environment in which managers work. Regarding this objective manager will be asked to name the main exogenous and endogenous pressures they encounter. The main attributes expected of managers by their community, business organisation and employees as well as managers degree of nervousness at work will all be examined.
4. To examine managers decision making style and their interpersonal relationships. In order to determine the decision making style the researcher will use a four point continuum reflecting the various degrees of power sharing between the manager and his subordinates. An almost similar continuum was used by Likert (1967) and Ali and Swiercz (1986). Like the continuum used by Likert, this study does not include a fifth continuum (delegation of decision making).

Concerning managers and their interpersonal styles, this study aims to examine the following:

- Managers way of obtaining their present jobs.
 - Managers attitudes towards their present jobs.
 - Managers way of handling functional problems.
 - Managers attitudes towards the use of mediation, nepotism and bribery.
 - Managers views of an ideal employee.
 - Managers perceptions of the main traits that constitute a successful manager.
 - Managers affiliation with professional bodies and organisations.
5. To examine the attitudes and beliefs of managers towards the following aspects:
 - Towards time

- Towards life insurance.
- Towards change. This aspect includes both socio-cultural change (i.e. attitudes towards women in employment, and the removal of customs and traditions. Technological change includes the increase in business technology and automation.

In order to examine managers attitudes towards change every manager in the survey will be given the statement about change and will then be asked to respond with the answer that best reflects his / her attitude towards such change using a four point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “strongly favour” to “strongly oppose”.

6. To examine the attitudes and beliefs of managers towards various managerial functions and themes. Managerial functions to be examined will include: planning and forecasting, organising and staffing, communicating, motivating, and leading. On the other hand, the managerial themes will include: management relationships (i.e. with employees), tenure, social and group and individual behaviour.

In order to examine managers attitudes and beliefs, every manager in the survey will be asked to respond to each statement on the questionnaire by choosing the answer that best reflects his / her attitude and beliefs using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

7. To determine managers need importance and need satisfaction. Regarding managers needs, the researcher adopted Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory but with some modifications (no questions about biological needs, and a division of Maslow's esteem category into esteem and autonomy).

To measure the managers need importance, every manager in the survey was asked to respond to several needs by choosing the answer that best reflects his / her needs using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “utmost importance” to “no importance”.

As for managers need satisfaction, every manager will be asked to respond to the same needs by choosing the answer that best reflects his / her degree of satisfaction using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “very satisfied” to “very dissatisfied”.

8. Finally this study aims to compare and contrast the results found with those of previous related research.

9.3 Research Design

Design deals primarily with aims, uses, purposes, intentions and plans within the practical constraints of location, time, money, and availability of staff.⁽¹⁾ Research design is the first stage of conducting any type of research. Researchers are like architects, Before an architect comes with his final plan for his building, he is invited to present his ideas, sometimes on competitive basis, on the shape, style and character of the building while taking into account all the building functions, purposes, location and so forth. The design stage can attract substantial interest and controversy, far more interest than the actual building work.⁽²⁾ What is research design? Research design is “a programme of work that guides the researcher through the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting data”.⁽³⁾ It also means the programme that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations.⁽⁴⁾ Kerlinger has defined research design as “the plan, structure, and strategy of investigation developed to attain our research objectives”,⁽⁵⁾ while Boone and Kurtz defined research design as “a series of decisions that taken together,

comprise a master plan or model for the conduct of the investigation".⁽⁶⁾

Literature has revealed eight different types of research design. They are literature review; secondary analysis and meta analysis of existing data; qualitative research; research based on administrative records and documentary evidence; *ad hoc* sample survey; regular or continuous sample surveys; case studies; longitudinal studies, and experimental social research.⁽⁷⁾ However, the four most commonly used research designs in the study of organisational behaviour are the case study, survey research, and the experimental both in the laboratory and in the field.⁽⁸⁾ These three types will be discussed, analysed and evaluated. But despite all these various types of research design, there is no one best approach or design methodology for all types of research. It should be obvious, however, that no one type of design is inherently inferior or superior to others. Each type does a particular job and should be selected according to the nature of the issue or questions to be addressed; the extent of existing knowledge and previous research; the resources and time available and the availability of experienced staff to implement the design.⁽⁹⁾

Case Study.

The case study involves an in-depth analysis of one or more individuals, groups, or organisations. Such analysis may be conducted by participant or non-participant observation, interviews, or analysis of documents and records.⁽¹⁰⁾ The major value of the case study as a research design is in generating insights and propositions.⁽¹¹⁾ In this study, for example, some of the variables that seem to be linked to managers job satisfaction will be identified. Despite its value and contribution the case study has the

following limitations:

First: it does not provide an effective means for testing propositions.

Second: it does not provide a basis for generalising research findings to other cases.

Third: the case study does not lend itself to an analysis of antecedent conditions and consequences of the organisational behaviour under study.

Fourth: it takes a well-trained and objective researcher to make the observation of the data. Too frequently, researchers see in case studies what they want to see. The case study, therefore, frequently leading to “self fulfilling” prophecies.⁽¹²⁾ Babbie has distinguished the case study design from other designs by stating “.....most research aims directly at generalised understanding, the case study is directed initially at the comprehensive understanding of a single idiosyncratic case”. Whereas most research attempts to limit the number of variables considered, the case study seeks to maximize them.⁽¹³⁾ Buchanan has stated that case study design is useful for unformulated or new fields of research, for stimulating fresh ideas and insights and for suggesting hypothesis for future research.⁽¹⁴⁾

Survey Research:

Survey research is the main design used in this study. It involves gathering data, usually by interview or questionnaire, from a sample of the identified population. In this study, a sample of 200 top managers was targeted but a final response rate of 88.5 per cent was attained. Respondents were interviewed and their responses were marked on the questionnaire. Survey research allows us to explore the relationships among a large set of

variables. Though survey research did not go without limitations.⁽¹⁵⁾

They include:

- (1) Difficulty in getting the cooperation of the sample. In a mail survey for example, it was found that no more than 40 to 50% of the individuals cooperate with the researcher. Therefore, in the study of organisational behaviour it is appropriate to use convenience sample rather than a sample chosen scientifically.
- (2) In survey research the researcher depends on the members of the sample to give accurate answers. Members of the sample can only be asked to give information about objects or events of which they have knowledge.
- (3) Survey research normally done at one point in time (cross-sectional) It cannot, therefore, account for any changes in the variables under study.
- (4) The findings of survey research are correlational, such as the relationship between education and satisfaction. Thus little can be learned about causality. Hence survey design is the predominant design in this study, it will be discussed in more detail later on in this chapter.

Experimental Design.

Experimental design is defined as “....a design in which the investigator creates a situation with the exact conditions he wants to have and in which he controls some variables and manipulates others”.⁽¹⁶⁾ Despite it being used less widely in social science due to its rigid structure that cannot often be adjusted to social science research, it is widely used today in social psychology, business policy and evaluation research.⁽¹⁷⁾

9.4 Research Methods

Once the strategy of design has been specified, the researcher needs to choose the appropriate method to be used in the data collection. There are five major research methods that are available to researchers: Interview, Questionnaire, Projective Method, Observation, and Organisation Records. However, out of these five methods, only two methods were implemented in this study. They are: the questionnaire using the personal interview method, and the observation. Both of these methods are subsumed under the concept survey research which was identified early in this chapter.

9.4.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is the main instrument used in the data collection of this study. In general, a questionnaire means a list of questions to obtain information or opinions of respondents who have been chosen in some designated manner.⁽¹⁸⁾ Questionnaire is one of the major data collection techniques used in the study of organisational behaviour. It can be used to measure attitudes, opinions, and beliefs of respondents⁽¹⁹⁾

9.4.2 The Instrument

In order to carry out the research, a questionnaire has been developed for this purpose by the researcher. (See Appendix 1). A sample of top managers and administrators from the administered territories of the West Bank was chosen. Each of the respondents was asked to fill out the questionnaire during a personal interview conducted by the researcher.

9.4.3 Refining the Instrument

Prior to the development of the questionnaire an extensive literature review

was conducted by the researcher. Several theses and questionnaires were reviewed especially questionnaires used by Muna, Sulieman, Hair *et al* , Ali and Swiercz, Likert, Vroom and Yetton, and Badawy. After a thorough examination of the relevant literature a questionnaire was constructed and submitted to the dissertation supervisor for comments, suggestions, and approval. His invaluable feedback and evaluation of the instrument has contributed substantially to the final draft of the questionnaire. Afterwards, five persons considered to be specialists in the field of research teaching and questionnaire construction were consulted. Their comments and criticisms were studied carefully and greatly helped in the development of the final form of the questionnaire. To ensure simplicity, directness and familiarity of words to respondents and clarity and specificity of measures and indicators, the English version of the questionnaire was pretested by asking 20 persons all of whom are managers in Glasgow to answer the questionnaire. All of these managers were in the age group between 30 to 39 years and were met during an executive MBA course while pursuing their first degree level at Glasgow University.

Based on their suggestions and comments the questionnaire was again modified and altered as appropriate. Minor modifications in wording were made accordingly.

Prior to the actual administration, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic, the native language in the West Bank, by two experienced Arabic and English teaching university lecturers in the West Bank. However, due to the closure of universities by the Israeli Military Authorities, the lecturers were consulted in their homes. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was translated into English again to ensure that no misunderstanding has

occurred in the translation from English into Arabic and to identify potential cultural biases. Few problem areas were identified and the final draft of the questionnaire was pretested on 20 university faculty members and administrators at An-Najah National University as a final quality check. The coding of the questionnaire was performed with the help of two computer programmers from An-Najah National University, Nablus, and Hebron Polytechnic Institute, Hebron.

9.4.4 Questionnaire Components

The questionnaire used in this study was a combination of both the closed and open ended questions. Closed-ended questions are easy to ask and quick to be answered; they require no writing by either respondent or interviewer, and their analysis is straightforward. Their major drawback is that they may introduce bias, either by forcing the respondent to choose from given alternatives or by making the respondent select alternatives that might not have otherwise occurred.⁽²⁰⁾ Open-ended questions on the other hand are not followed by any kind of specified choice, and the respondents' answers are recorded in full. The virtue of the open-ended question is that it does not force the respondent to adapt to preconceived answers.

Having understood the question, one can express one's thoughts freely, spontaneously, and in one's own language. Open-ended questions are flexible; they have possibilities of depth, they enable the interviewer to clear up misunderstandings, and they encourage rapport. However, open ended questions are difficult to answer and still more difficult to analyse.⁽²¹⁾

Because of the nature of the research, being an exploratory study, most of the data collected has been based on nominal and ordinal level of

measurement. The questionnaire starts with a cover letter stating the nature of the research and its purpose and other personal information. Beside the cover letter, the questions were grouped into six major categories: (See Appendix 1).

- Background information about the managers.
- Managers and their environment.
- Manager relationships.
- Managers attitudes, beliefs and culture.
- Managers needs.
- Managers degree of satisfaction.

9.4.4.1 Cover Letter

The first page of the questionnaire contained an introductory letter as to the nature of the research and its purpose and other personal information about the researcher. The letter contained a written assurance that respondents answers will be regarded as confidential and would only be used for academic purposes.

9.4.4.2 Background Information

This part of the questionnaire contained three sections. The first section included questions that led to information about respondents such as their age, sex, education, marital status, number of dependents, place of birth, languages spoken and career patterns. The second part contained organisational variables like size of organisation, age of firm, kind of business, and number of females employed. The third section included questions that led to information about the managers way of obtaining their present jobs, weekly working hours, fathers occupation, affiliation with professional and organisational bodies, discussion of issues other than

work matters with subordinates, and feelings about present jobs.

9.4.4.3 Managers and Their Environment

This section deals with managers and their working environment. Managers were asked about the main exogenous and endogenous pressures they encounter. They were also asked about their degree of nervousness at work, various attributes expected of them, ways of handling functional problems, subordinates fear, and about their decision making styles.

9.4.4.4 Managers Relationships

In this section managers were asked about their interpersonal relationships. They were asked about their attitudes towards mediation, nepotism and bribery. Questions that lead to information about employee loyalty and perceptions of the reasons for managers success were all placed in this section.

9.4.4.5 Managers Attitudes, Beliefs and Culture

This section was divided into two parts. The first deals with managers attitudes toward time, life insurance, working women, business technology and automation, and prevailing customs and traditions. The other contained questions about managers attitudes and beliefs. These questions contained several statements that will measure respondents attitudes and beliefs towards certain managerial functions and themes using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

9.4.4.6 Managers Needs

In this section managers were asked to indicate the degree of importance they attach to five major needs using a five point Likert-type rating scale

ranging from “utmost importance” to “no importance”.

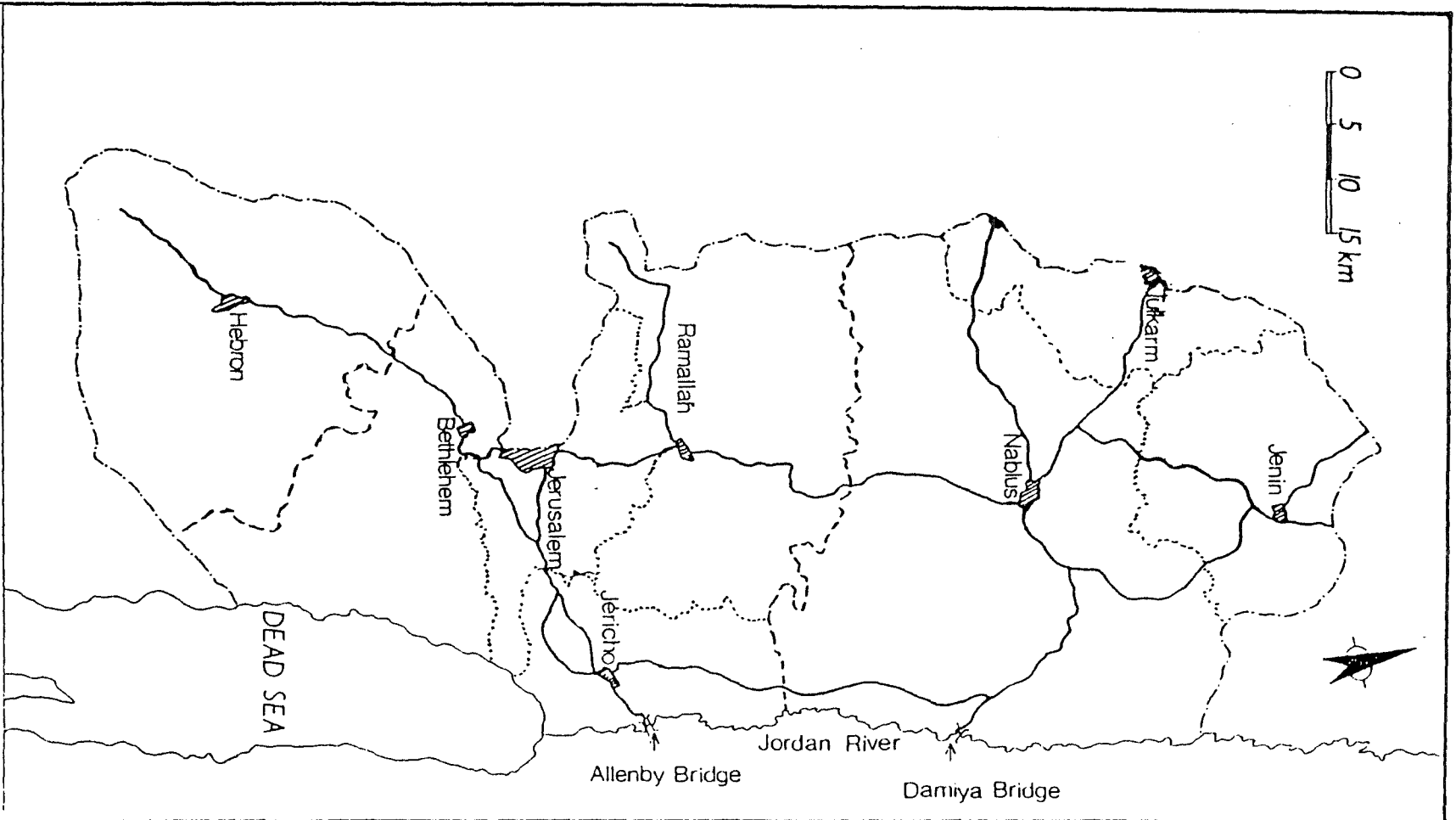
9.4.4.7 Managers Satisfaction

This final part of the questionnaire was intended to measure the respondents degree of satisfaction with the same needs prescribed using a five point Likert-type rating scale ranging from “very satisfied” to “very dissatisfied”.

In the last two questions of the questionnaire respondents were asked to add anything on their minds that they felt should be mentioned. They were also asked if they would like their names being mentioned in the thesis. Those who responded by saying “Yes” were asked for their full names and the way they would like them to appear.

9.5 The Sample

The findings of this research are intended to be generalised to all of West Bank managers and administrators. In order to ensure representativeness, respondents were selected from all of the six major districts in the West Bank. The districts are: Hebron, Bethlehem, Jerusalem, Ramallah, Nablus, Jenin and Tulkarim. The following map shows the location of these districts. The sample was designed to include respondents from all public sectors in the occupied West Bank as well as top managers who are working in business organisation in the private sectors in all the districts. The targeted sample was 200 top managers and administrators, but due to unforeseen difficulties in arranging interviews and in obtaining the cooperation of respondents, as a result of the unstable political situation in the region, a final sample of 177 respondents (88.5%) was achieved. A sample of this size is regarded as very representative taking into account the Palestinian Intifada in the occupied territories which resulted in the closure



West Bank: General Map

of many private businesses and manufacturing industries as well as the call for the resignation of some administrators in the public sectors (civil administration). To obtain lists of subjects, the researcher contacted City Chambers of Commerce and trade unions in the West Bank. The Yellow Pages of the West Bank Telephone Directory were also consulted. To ensure representativeness for each district, systematic random sampling was utilised in obtaining names of respondents and companies to be interviewed in each district.

9.5.1 In the Field

The researcher left for the West Bank in March 1988, almost four months after the beginning of the Palestinian uprising. Then a period of almost two months was spent on the translation, printing and final preparation of the two versions of the questionnaire (Arabic and English). The actual data collection began in May 1988 just days after the end of fasting for the month of Ramadan. The 177 top managers and administrators studied were personally interviewed by the researcher. They were interviewed in their offices with an average of 45 minutes per interview. Each respondent was asked to choose the language of the interview, very few subjects chose the English language. All interviews were pre-arranged and yet there were moments of paranoia that caused unamicable behaviour and suspicions. In fact, some respondents asked to skim through the questionnaire before being interviewed.

The interviews were pre-arranged due to the nature of the subjects being professional people. Both the direct and indirect interviews were used. In direct interviews, the researcher asked the questions from a predetermined

set of questions in a multiple choice fashion. For example, subject was asked: How do you feel about your job? How often do you feel nervous at work? He then was asked to respond with one of the following: very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied. And for the question about nervousness, he was asked to respond by choosing one of the following answers: always, usually, sometimes, seldom, and never.

Consequently in the non-direct interview the researcher asked the respondent to answer a series of questions with no predetermined set of responses. For example, the subject was asked "What are the three main internal pressures you face in your work?". The subject was then asked to furnish his own response in his or her own words. In both cases of interviews, all responses were marked verbatim and visible to interviewees. At the end of each interview further comments and impressions were recorded in the absence of respondents.

The survey was completed by the middle of December 1988. This period was longer than the researcher had expected. But it is understood in light of the political instability in the region, and the circumstantial difficulties which were encountered by the researcher throughout the data collection period.

9.5.2 Reasons for Using the Personal Interview Method

In survey research there are three major methods that can be used to elicit information from respondents: The personal interview, the mail questionnaire, and the telephone survey. However, the following section will outline the main reasons for using the personal interview style in

collecting data for this particular research.⁽²²⁾

- First and foremost, the basic objective of the study is to present a comprehensive understanding of West Bank managers attitudes and behaviour. To achieve this objective the researcher must acquire a broad body of knowledge and understanding of managers. This method best fulfills this need.
- Personal interview usually yields a high percentage of return, for most people are willing to cooperative. (Maximise the response rate).
- To yield an almost perfect sample of the general population because practically everyone can be reached by and can respond to this approach.
- To obtain more accurate information. The presence of the interviewer will provide an opportunity to clarify questions concerning the purpose, technique and method of response to the questions.
- To collect supplementary information about the informant's personal characteristics and environment that is valuable in interpreting results.
- To control which person answer the questions.
- The personal interview may take long enough to allow the informant to become oriented to the topic under investigation.
- Questions about which the informant is likely to be sensitive can be carefully sandwiched in by the interviewer.
- To adopt the language of the interview to the ability and educational level of the interviewee.
- The personal interview was adopted to overcome problems associated with the communication system in the West Bank (telephone and postal services).
- The personal interview was also adopted because of its advantage in

allowing for observation. In many cases, in this study, the mottos, slogans, wall signs and plaques of many firms were quoted verbatim by the researcher.

Despite all these advantages, personal interviews can have the following drawbacks:⁽²³⁾

- 1 The transportation costs and the time required may make the personal interview method not feasible.
2. The presence of the interviewer may influence managers responses by making them more sensitive to answering certain issues as a result of being known to the interviewer.
3. Unless the interviewers are properly trained and supervised, the data records may be inaccurate and incomplete.
4. The personal interview usually takes more time than the telephone interview.
5. Interviewer bias - personal interviews sometimes leave room for personal influence and bias of the interviewer⁽²⁴⁾.
6. Lack of anonymity which the mail questionnaire typically provides. Respondent may feel threatened or intimidated by the interviewer, especially when the topic or some of the questions are of a sensitive nature.⁽²⁵⁾

9.5.3. The Mail Questionnaire

Mail questionnaires can be considered as an impersonal survey technique. However, despite its various advantages of lower costs, reduction in biasing error, greater anonymity, and accessibility, this method was not used to elicit information for this particular study for the following reasons:

- (a) Low response rate.
- (b) No opportunity for probing.
- (c) No control over who fills out the questionnaire.
- (d) Communication systems in the West Bank such as the mail and telephone system are so poor, especially during the uprising. In addition, the absence of complete and correct mailing addresses for the managers in the sample, and administrators in various organisations, as a result of the substantial change that took place in recent years.

9.5.4 The Telephone Interview

The third method which can be used to elicit information from respondents is the telephone survey. Telephone survey can be characterised as a semipersonal method of collecting data.⁽²⁶⁾ Not too long ago, telephone surveys were viewed with scepticism or outright distrust. Some texts explicitly warned their readers to avoid this method.⁽²⁷⁾ More recently, however, telephone surveys have gained general acceptance as a legitimate method of data collection in the social sciences. But beyond the obvious advantages of cost and speed, and high response rate than the personal interview, this method of data collection was not the researcher's choice due to the following reasons:

1. Poor telephone system in the West Bank. For example, just two months ago, the City of Jenin, north of the West Bank was connected to the manual operator or what is called manual trunk. Any phone call to Jenin has to go through this manual operator. Being connected to such an operator makes calling inconvenient and sometimes

impossible.

2. The Israeli major telephone company, Basic, which is in charge of all telephone services in Israel and the occupied territories is so slow in making telephone repairs in the administered territories. In some cases telephone lines in the occupied territories remain out of order until an approval for repair is granted by the civil administration within the district. To illustrate this let us take the following observation as being observed by the researcher. "When Basic employees (Israelis) are out on work mission in the West Bank, they are always accompanied by Israeli armed guards. The presence of the soldiers therefore makes these employees more vulnerable to attacks from masked youths and rock throwers who are called upon by the Unified National Leadership of the uprising to destroy all the occupiers property and resources with all means".
3. Some telephone lines and telephone poles were deliberately cut off and chopped down by Palestinian striking forces in order to make it impossible for informers to contact the Israeli Military authorities. This happened in Alia hospital, the biggest government hospital in Hebron, which had its telephones cut off for almost a week during the data collection period. According to hospital sources, Palestinian masked youths stormed the hospital one night. They drew the outlawed Palestinian flag and other national slogans on the walls of the hospital, and have changed the name sign of the hospital from Alia to Dalal Al Mugrabi, a Palestinian female who died while on a suicidal mission in Palestine. Prior to committing this act, it is believed that youths had cut off all telephone lines in the premises so as to make it impossible for informers to contact the adjacent Israeli military headquarters.

9.6 Scopes and Limitations of the Study

The reader should realise that a survey of this nature can only be carried out in the occupied West Bank under tremendous difficulties not normally faced by a social scientist.⁽²⁸⁾ This section will outline the main difficulties that were faced by the researcher while conducting the fieldwork. These limitations are two fold: first, limitations resulting from the current abnormal situation prevailing in the West Bank; and second, limitations resulting from the technique itself. Each of these classifications will be discussed and verified.

9.6.1 Limitations Resulting from the Current Abnormal Situation Prevailing in the Occupied West Bank

As mentioned earlier, conducting research in the occupied West Bank is difficult. The severe measures taken by the occupation as well as the ongoing Intifada have made the task of researchers even harder. For instance, the research was interrogated at gunpoint before being turned away from the Graduates Union Research Centre in the city of Hebron, south of the West Bank. Such intimidation is not normally experienced by other researchers in other parts of the world. Apart from intimidation, the researcher had to face many other problems.

1. The short working hours and the closure of many manufacturing industries as well as the calls for the resignation of some administrators in the public sector (Civil Administration). As a result all interviews were conducted in the day time. It is worth noting that during the Intifada, private businesses in the occupied territories are not allowed to operate beyond 12 o'clock in the afternoon with some exceptions made for major factories. (For more information see

Chapter Six on Economy).

2. The timing of the data collection was very inconvenient. The researcher was risking his life by travelling on days of general strikes, curfews, as well as going through military checkpoints. On general strike days, Palestinian striking forces used to cover the roads with ningys and other greasy substance in order to make driving hazardous and sometimes impossible. Cars which break the strike are usually pelted with rocks and on many occasions Arab cars were firebombed as a result of being mistaken for Israeli vehicles. These events made the data collection extremely difficult. For instance, the researcher remembers walking for almost 10 miles from Hebron to his home town because there were not many cars on the road and traffic was halted in response to the calls for a general strike made by the Unified National Leadership of the uprising. In another instance and in the city of Tulkarim, north of the West Bank, the researcher had to rush into a nearby house without being able to conduct his interview after a fierce battle broke out between the Israeli soldiers and Palestinian masked men in which live ammunition was used by soldiers. Apart from all this the researcher was always asked to produce his military identity card at military checkpoints throughout the West Bank in which the soldiers match the names of the cards with a prepared list of wanted Palestinians.
3. The researcher's fear of being labeled as a collaborator with the authorities because he went into government offices which the leadership of the uprising called for boycotting by all means. Such accusation would put the life of the researcher at risk and make a dent in his honour which is of utmost value and concern to him. As mentioned earlier, honour is so important to the Arabs to the point that

in 1968 the fear of dishonouring the family by Israeli soldiers, and threats, was the primary factor behind the Palestinian exodus to Jordan and neighbouring Arab countries.⁽²⁹⁾

4. The presence of the researcher in government offices put his life at risk especially because all government offices were vulnerable to Palestinian attacks.
5. Lack of publications and records in many companies. Publications and records were either destroyed or hidden by owners and managers because of fear of government raids on companies for tax purposes.
6. The difficulty in arranging interviews with some managers and administrators. Many managers were afraid to cooperate because of their suspicions of the motives behind the research despite all the assurances being made. Some managers were afraid to cooperate because of their fear that the research was politically motivated and being sponsored by the Israeli government. Others asked for written approval from the Israeli authorities before agreeing to being interviewed. Many letters asking for approval were rejected even after a postal stamp was glued on at the request of the administrator. (See Appendix 3 for a copy).
7. The closure of all West Bank universities and colleges in addition to the closure of the "Arab Studies Society" in Jerusalem. All these institutions were ordered to close by Yitzhak Rabin, Israel Defence Minister, just two months after the beginning of the Palestinian uprising. The closure of these institutions which is still in effect today, denied the researcher access to a large amount of literature pertaining to the West Bank. Therefore, while in the West Bank the researcher depended heavily on the use of Municipal and Public Libraries such as the Arab Thought Forum Library in East Jerusalem

and other city libraries throughout the territories, in addition to local daily newspapers and publications of the West Bank Data Base Project (WBDBP) in Jerusalem. A large amount of literature was also gathered from local books shops in the occupied territories.

8. Business culture in the West Bank is a conservative one. Managers do not reveal everything on their minds. In many companies, employees are asked to sign a secrecy contract before taking on the job. (See Appendices 4 and 5).
9. Top administrators in the public sector are still attached to the military governor within the district (Civil Administration) from whom they get their orders and directions. As a result they are normally afraid to pass on information because they do not want to be held responsible. Therefore, and as a condition for their cooperation, these administrators insist that written approval must be obtained from the Israeli authorities beforehand.

9.6.2 Limitations Resulting from the Research Techniques

Adding to these problems there were other limitations of a different nature.

Such limitations resulted from the technique used. They include:

- (a) Limitation of questionnaire type research (lack of opportunity to probe, and imposition of special indicators and excluding others).
- (b) Inferential analysis - what managers actually do might be different from what they claim to be doing. The researcher had no choice but to accept the information provided.
- (c) Interviewer presence may cause subsequent possible bias in response.⁽³⁰⁾ On many occasions respondents say what they think will please the researcher.

- (d) The study was restricted to top managers and administrators thus eliminating other important constituencies such as middle managers and employees.
- (e) The study was confined to the West Bank thus excluding the Gaza Strip which is also part of the occupied Palestine and is under Israeli control.

9.7 How Were These Problems Tackled?

It is important for the reader to realise that some of the problems outlined are out of the researcher's control while others can be tackled or even minimised in influence. Apart from the written cover letter of the questionnaire, the researcher always introduced himself to respondents in a friendly manner. The researcher used to explain to the respondent in a friendly and polite way, the purpose of the study, the method of selecting respondents, and the confidential nature of the interview. After a friendly atmosphere was established suspicions of the researcher and his identity were abolished and on several occasions the researcher received the blessings and prayers of interviewees, such as "May Allah protect you and make you succeed". Moreover and in order to ease respondents fear and suspicion of the survey, the researcher used to present the respondents with a written letter from the supervisor of the research at Glasgow University. which was made out by the supervisor for the researcher at the latter's request. In many cases respondents retained a copy of the supervisor's letter for their records and for future needs which may arise. (For a copy of the letter see Appendix 6).

9.8 Computation and Data Analysis

All of the data collected underwent different processes of computer analysis.

However, it is worth noting that the implementation of the proper statistical technique for any set of data will depend to a large extent on the types of variables (dependent and independent), the various levels of measurement used and the ratio scales in the research.

For the purpose of this study and because it is an exploratory one, the questionnaire was designed with maximum care so as to obtain the largest amount of data suitable for the purpose of the study. All the data collected underwent different processes of computer analysis. Concrete assistance as to the proper statistical technique to be used was sought from colleagues at An-Najah National University, Computer and Statistics Departments. As a result of the closure of West Bank Universities, they all were consulted in their homes. Equal assistance was also provided by staff at Glasgow University, Computer Centre (advisory) and Statistics Department. Once the data had been coded and processed, various statistical programmes were designed in order to obtain some descriptive statistical measures, such as the frequency distribution, the percentages and the mean scores (\bar{x}).

As for the statistical technique for testing the degree of association between the personal characteristics of respondents and other variables, and between various questions, the cross tabulation tables, Cramer's V and the Chi-square test of association (X^2) were implemented.

In order to find out which of the independent variables account most for the differences in managers attitudes and beliefs, a rather more sophisticated statistical technique, Multivariate Data Analysis (MDA) was performed. This technique is considered an appropriate type of profile analysis and an

analytical predictive technique. All in all, these various statistical techniques were carried out with the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSSx) at Glasgow University, which is designed to provide researchers with comprehensive procedures of data analysis which are applicable to the analysis of data in social sciences research.

9.9 Summary

This chapter has provided us with an analysis of six major sections: the objectives of the study, the major types of research design, the research methods used, the instrument, the achieved sample, and finally the data collection process. Some of these sections were analysed, discussed and evaluated in terms of their advantages and disadvantages, and in terms of their contributions, links and connections with other types. The types of research design were analysed with the emphasis being put on the survey research. Survey research includes methods such as personal interview, the mail questionnaire, and the telephone survey. This chapter has shown that no one type of design is inherently inferior or superior to others. Each type of research design does a particular job and should be selected according to the nature of the issue or question to be discussed. However, when collecting information and regardless of the technique used, the collector must first decide what facts are needed to be obtained. These facts must be those that are necessary to the solution of the problem under study, and they must be set forth as a specially written statement, which describes and explains exactly the information required. Fact finding should always be accomplished by the techniques that are most efficient in the light of the problem under investigation, and the time and financial limitations involved.

CHAPTER 9

Endnotes

1. Catherine Hakim, Research Design: Structure and Choices in the Design of Social Research. (Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1987), p.1.
2. Ibid., p.1.
3. David A. Buchanan, Introduction to Research Design(1): Problem of Generalisation and Control. Unpublished paper, Scottish Business School, Doctoral Programme, 1986.
4. David and Chava Nachmias. Research Methods in the Social Science.(New York: St. Martins Press, 1981), p.75.
5. Kerlinger. Foundation of Behavioural Research, p.300.
6. Boone and Kurtz, 1986, p.99.
7. Catherine Hakim, *op cit.*, p.9.
8. H. Randolph Bobbitt, Jr. *et al* . Organisational Behaviour: Understanding and Perfections. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1978), p.28.
9. Catherine Hakim, *op cit.*, p.10.
10. H. Randolph Bobbitt Jr.*et al*, *op cit.*, . pp.28-29.
11. William Evans. Organisational Experiments and Field Research. (New York: Harper and Row, 1971), p.1
12. H. Randolph Bobbitt Jr. *et al*, *op cit.*, pp.28-29.
13. Eral R. Babbie. Survey Research Methods. (California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1973),. p.37.
14. David A. Buchanan, *op cit* .
15. H. Randolph Bobbitt Jr.*et al*, *op cit.*, p.29.
16. Karls E. Wick "Laboratory Experimentation with Organisations".

- In J. March (Ed.). Handbook of Organisations. (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), p.198.
17. David and Chava Nachmias, *op cit.*, pp.78-79.
 18. Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement. Third Edition (New York: David McKay Company Inc.,1978).
 19. H. Randolph Bobbitt Jr. *et al*, *op cit.*, p.31.
 20. David and Chava Nachmias, *op cit.*, p.211.
 21. Ibid.
 22. Delbert C. Miller, *op cit.*, pp.84-85.
 23. Ibid.
 24. David and Chava Nachmias, *op cit.*, p.193.
 25. Ibid.
 26. Ibid., p.198.
 27. William R. Klecka and Alfred J. Tuchfarber "Random Digit Dialling: A Comparison to Personal Survey". *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42 (1978), pp.105-114.
 28. Ibrahim Wada Ata, The West Bank Palestinian Family. London, 1986), p.VI.
 29. Dodd, P and Barakat, H. River Without Bridges, (Beirut. IPS, 1968).
 30. Varsen Aghabekian. Perception of Effectiveness Indicators for the Development of an Instrument for Evaluating Colleges and Universities on the Occupied West Bank. PhD Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1988, p.2.

CHAPTER 10

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

10.1 Introduction

To this date Palestinian Arab managers in the West Bank have been virtually ignored as a topic of study. One of the main reasons for the paucity of such studies is the difficulty in studying and drawing conclusions about people who are under occupation. The occupation has made it tremendously difficult for researchers and anthropologists. Intervening variables, such as the effects of military force(s) and occupation on the life of people and researchers should be taken into account when studying the West Bank. Ata, in his study on the Palestinian family on the West Bank was angry to find out that seventy-five completed questionnaires were confiscated from one interviewer, thus reducing the sample of his study from 1000 down to 925. Another interviewer was interrogated at a gunpoint before being turned away from a refugee camp without being able to complete his survey.⁽¹⁾

The West Bank as part of the Middle East represents a strategic area of management practice. When dealing with the Arabs one should have a clear knowledge and perception about the Arabs value systems, customs, traditions, expectations, sensitivities and perception of themselves and of the world around them.

This chapter aims to give a clear description of the subjects as well as of the firms under study. More specifically this chapter will give a thorough description of the managers sampled. Such description includes their age, sex, marital status, place of birth, educational achievements, length of

service, number of languages they speak, and manager's father's occupation. As for the firms covered in the study, the description includes information such as firms size, age and type classification.

10.2 Managers Characteristics

The first section of this chapter attempts to give a better understanding of the characteristics of managers involved in the survey as already outlined.

10.2.1 Managers Age

The top managers participating in the survey are employed in different organisations. Table 10.1 presents a brief profile of their age.

Table 10.1 Managers Age

	Frequency	N = 177 % Frequency
Less than 30 years	21	11.9
30 to 39 years	38	21.5
40 to 49 years	51	28.8
50 to 59 years	38	21.5
60 years and over	29	16.4
TOTAL	177	100.0
Mean 45.2	STD Dev. 12.57	

The table shows that more than 50 per cent of the total population are between 30 and 49 years of age with more than 28 per cent falling between 40 to 49 years of age. The minimum age of participants is 19 years while the maximum age is 76 years. The average age of Palestinian managers surveyed is 45.2 years. The maximum age as shown indicates that the older generation of the West Bank managers retire very slowly due to the nature of

the West Bank businesses with many being family owned, and due to the Arabs respect for age, and due to the absence of national government and comprehensive retirement plans. One should not be surprised, however, to notice that 21 managers are under the age of 30 years.

The head of the family in the West Bank as it is in most of the Arabs business culture is the chief executive of the business unit. The eldest son is next in the firm's hierarchy. The survey has indicated that 35 per cent of the subjects involved are owners of their firms. Muna in his study on the Arab executive has demonstrated that the typical executive manages a business firm, often one that has been his family for many years; or he heads an organisation that he has recently been created.⁽²⁾

The findings of this study differ from the findings of other studies such as the study on Saudi Arabia managers as conducted by Ali and Swiercz. In their study they have found that out of 83 managers interviewed 71 per cent were between the age of 30 to 49 years while in this study and out of 177 managers interviewed 50.3 per cent were between the age of 30 to 49 years.⁽³⁾

10.2.2 Place of Birth

Where do West Bank managers come from? Where are they born? It is worth mentioning that in 1980, the total West Bank population was distributed into 64.5 per cent rural dwellers, 25.5 per cent urban settlers, and 10 per cent residing in refugee camps.⁽⁴⁾ Table 10.2 shows that more than 90 per cent of the managers participating in the study were born in the occupied West Bank and Gaza. It also shows that 4 per cent of the

managers were born in the occupied Arab land of 1948. The remaining subjects are divided equally among Arab countries and South America. It was found that two managers were born in Jordan. One manager was born in Egypt, while the fourth manager was born in Lebanon. As of South America, it was found that one manager was born in Chile and three managers were born in Ecuador.

Table 10.2 Place of Birth

Place	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
West Bank	157	88.7
Gaza Strip	5	2.8
Arab Countries	4	2.3
Occupied Arab Land (1948)*	7	4.0
South America	4	2.3
TOTAL	177	100.0

* Occupied Arab Land (1948) has been formally annexed to Israel shortly after the takeover. Palestinians in these lands have Israeli passports. They do have the right to vote and run for Israeli election.

One can notice here the fact that the percentage of managers from Gaza Strip is so meagre. This can be attributed to travel restrictions within the territories especially between Gaza and the West Bank. Despite being occupied by the same occupiers and despite being one country (Palestine) though Gaza was under different regime (Egypt) while the West Bank was under Jordan, the Israeli government issues two different types of identity cards and licence plates to the Palestinians of these two parts of the territories.

10.2.3 Sex

As can be seen in Table 10.3 the extreme majority of the managers surveyed are males. Only 7.3 per cent of the managers are females with the majority being in the educational sector and many holding positions in government social affairs and community service departments. The findings are not surprising because most of Arab societies are male dominated ones particularly in Moslem dominated societies like the West Bank.

Table 10.3 Sex

	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
Male	164	92.7
Female	13	7.3
TOTAL	177	100.0

To Arabs the superiority of males over females has been explained by modern conservative writers as due not only to the fact of economic dependancy, but also to basic pervasive differences between males and females which are biological, psychological, intellectual and physiological in nature.⁽⁵⁾ They exist because God has created humanity of two kinds, male and female. If he did not have specific roles and requirements for them he would not have created them differently. For women to seek roles inconsistent with those designed for them is seen as a rebellion against God's will. Religious parameters on women's rights, however, have placed the Muslim women in a special position. For although her rights of inheritance are guaranteed, she only inherits one-half of the portion of the male.⁽⁶⁾ The duty of obedience to the husband used to be impressed on the

wife during the wedding ceremony where she learned that he is her Lord.⁽⁷⁾ She was to treat him with respect, kissing his hands on special occasions such as feasts days.⁽⁸⁾ The Muslim man has the right to marry more than one wife and not *vice versa*. He has the right to divorce his wife while the female may have the right to divorce her husband only under very strict conditions, including a clause in the marriage contract giving her the right to do so.⁽⁹⁾

In Arab Muslim societies the stigma that divorce brings to women, their families as well as the whole hamula (an aggregate of extended family) makes many women accept contentment through obedience and gentleness in service. Arabs perceive women as being weak and easily deceived thus any contact between males and females is dangerous and may eventually lead to sexual relations. In fact one businessman went on to say "Males and females are like gas and fire, they should be kept far apart".

The subject of femininity and masculinity has been widely studied by Brown (1981), Hofstede (1983), Thal and Cateora (1979), Adler (1984), Izraeli and Others (1980). They all have different views on female workers and executives. But to quote a few, it has been found that Brown in her study on women managers in the United States of America, has pointed out that barely 1% of top managers are women.⁽¹⁰⁾ She also found that the percentage of female managers is still smaller than that of men: 15 % of the male labour force now hold managerial jobs whereas only 6% of females do.⁽¹¹⁾ Humphrey was quoted by Izraeli, 1980, as saying "One of the richest underutilized resources in America is the talents of its women".⁽¹²⁾

10.2.4 Marital Status

Table 10.4 indicates that 88.7 per cent of the subjects are married. Only

10.2 per cent of the managers are single. The findings are not surprising because early age at marriage has been considered normal within the Palestinian society. The parents fear of their daughters possible involvement in sexual/emotional relationships has for a long time been a strong preventive social force.⁽¹³⁾ Ata, in his study on West Bank Palestinian family has found that the mean age at marriage for the Palestinian male is 23.6 years, and the female average is 19.6 years. Though he has found that the youngest males in the sample married at the age of 14. This finding is corroborated by the following observation as given by the researcher:

“.....while collecting data in the West Bank, I was invited to a wedding lunch. After lunch, the visitors as well as myself asked the father of the groom if we could meet the groom just to congratulate him and to wish him the best for the future .After waiting for more than 10 minutes we were surprised to find that the groom was unavailable because he was playing the marble game (childrens' game) with some of the neighbours kids”.

Table 10.4 also shows that 1.1 per cent of the sample are divorced. This is a very low divorce rate but is considered quite normal in Muslim Society. Hence Islam discourages divorce even though it is not forbidden. In Islam when one gets married, he only then completes the second part of his faith. The first part of the Muslim faith is considered to be the fulfilling of the five pillars of Islam.

Table 10.4 Marital Status

	Frequency	N = 177 % Frequency
Single	18	10.2
Married	157	88.7
Divorced	2	1.1
TOTAL	177	100.0

10.2.5 Number of Children

It has appeared from Table 10.5 that 36.7 per cent of the married sample have 4 to 6 children. This family size is considered to be a moderate size of family. The mean number of children in the survey sample is 3.5 children.

Table 10.5 Number of Children

	Frequency	N = 177 % Frequency
0 children	36	20.3
Less than 3 children	54	30.5
4 to 6 children	65	36.5
7 children and more	22	12.4
TOTAL	177	100.0
Mean 3.50 children	STD Dev. 2.7	
Minimum .000	Maximum 12.0	

The table indicates that 30.5 per cent of the married managers (married includes those being divorced either being male or female) have less than 3 children which is considered to be a small sized family. Ata, in his study on

the West Bank Palestinian family has indicated the mean number of children per family at 4.7 children which is considered to be slightly higher than the average mean found in this study. This can be attributed to the type of subjects interviewed. Demographers have indicated that the fertility rate is associated negatively with the increase in income, education, and ambitions.⁽¹⁴⁾ The study has also indicated that 12.4 per cent of the sample of married managers have more than 7 children with a maximum of 12 children in some families. Having a big family of this size can be attributed to four main aspects: one - patriotic reasons. Palestinians on the West Bank want to outnumber the Israelis. They want to offset those being lost in wars. Second, religious reasons. Islam encourages Muslims to have more children. Third, protectionism and social security. Arab parents resemble their children to an army. The more the children, the bigger the size of the army will be. From early childhood, an Arab child is taught as a member of the extended family, to be responsible for his blood relations. Arab parents consider their children to be as body guards. Fourth, polygamy. Polygamy is still widespread among Muslims and mainly among peasants.

10.2.6 Educational Achievement

Managers participating in the survey were employed in a variety of companies and organisations. Table 10.6 shows that Palestinian managers have a diverse educational background. In West Bank businesses university graduates occupy very important positions in management. They constitute 67.8 per cent of all managers interviewed. The table shows that 14.7 per cent of managers have completed high school (12 years) whilst only 7.3 have graduation from vocational schools which extends usually from six months to two years after high school. Only 10.2 per cent of the managers interviewed have not completed high school, though all of them are literate. Figure 10.1 summarises the findings. The results clearly attest the

importance of education to the Arabs. Today, Palestinian students are dispersed all over the world in order to enhance and further their education.

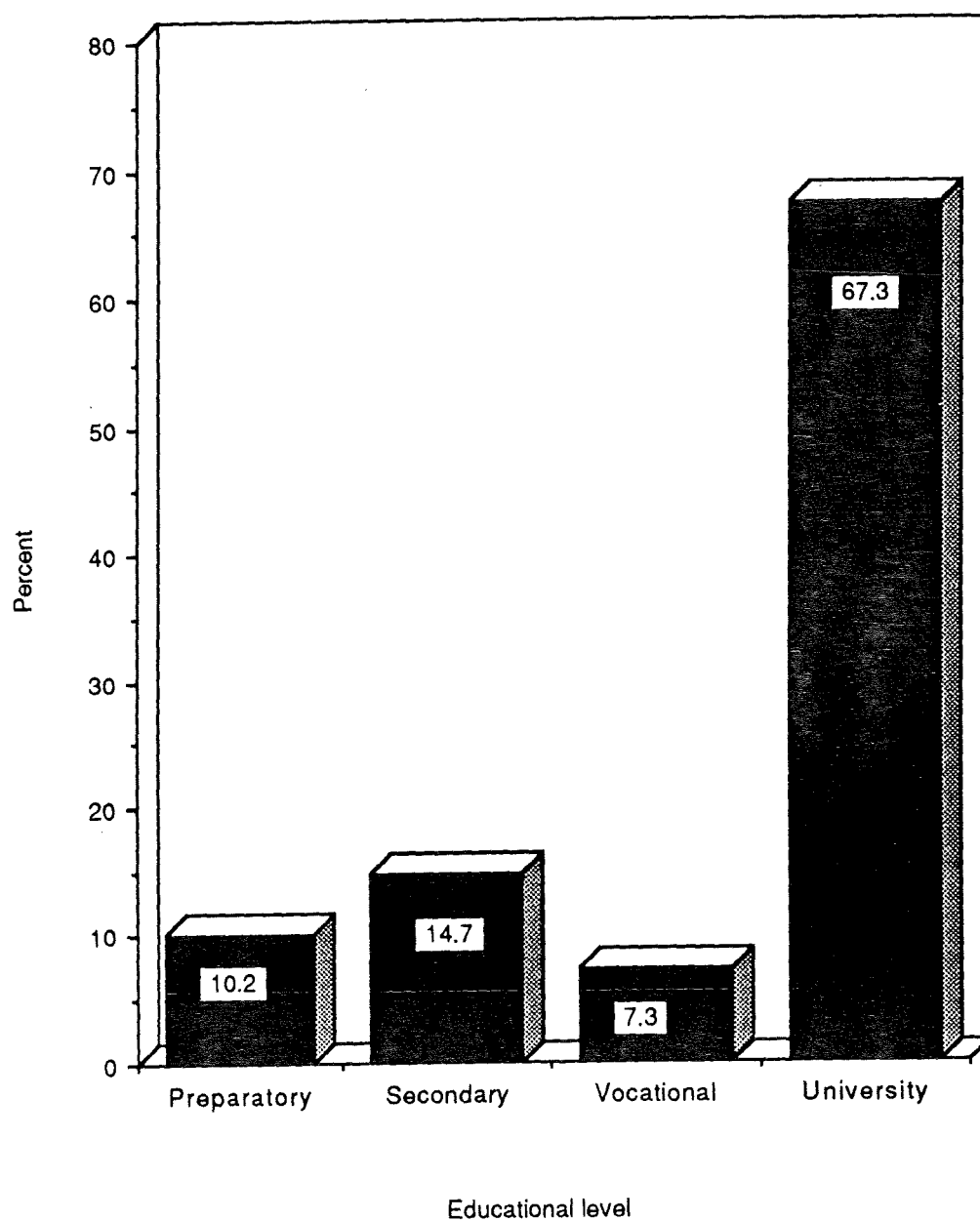
Table 10.6 Educational Achievement

Level	Frequency	N = 177
		% Frequency
Preparatory School	18	10.2
Secondary School	26	14.7
Vocational school	13	7.3
University	120	67.3
TOTAL	177	100.0

Palestinians place a lot of respect on education and educators. In fact it was found that the number of female university graduates among Palestinians is higher than that among other Arabs.⁽¹⁵⁾ Palestinians view education as a weapon which can be used in fighting the enemies. The loss of property in Palestine enhanced the Palestinians feeling that education is a better investment, a permanent possession that can not be usurped by alien colonizing forces. Furthermore, education became an avenue of liberation from dependency, from poverty, hunger and want. Despite the high percentage of university graduates, Palestinian executives in the West Bank do not need to have university degrees in order to manage or to establish an organisation, a case which is totally different from the Swiss, where a man is required to obtain a diploma from a school of commerce before establishing himself in business. While in France, for example, all that is required for a man to start an organisation is that he has not been convicted as a criminal. ⁽¹⁶⁾

Figure 10.1

Managers' Education



10.2.7 Field of Study

Table 10.7 shows that among University graduates, the largest contingent 31.1 per cent of all graduates is made up of graduates majoring in business, commerce and accounting with the majority of this percentage 21.5 specialising in management. The second largest group is that of graduates of the faculty of Arts, constituting 14.1 per cent with the majority 10.7 per cent specialising in literature. From this study one can conclude that 67.8 per cent of the top management positions are held by university graduates. It appears from the table that Palestinian education is geared more toward the social sciences and literature, with little emphasis being put on technical education, a problem which has been felt by many of the managers interviewed. Management education in the West Bank does not have a very long history though it has gained wide acceptance. Most of West Bank universities were established after 1967. Three major universities on the West Bank have added management education to their curriculum. These universities are: An-Najah National University (Nablus), Birzeit University (Birzeit-Ramallah), and Bethlehem University (Bethlehem). The biggest business department is located at An-Najah National University where the researcher has been teaching for more than six years. Professors and instructors are sent to America and European universities for retraining and development, and a large amount of foreign educational materials are purchased. At the present time most universities and colleges of economics and administrative sciences offer only regular undergraduate courses in management.

Table 10.7 Field of Study

Field	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
0 degrees	18	10.2
Business and commerce	55	31.3
Arts	25	14.1
Science	18	10.2
Engineering	14	7.9
Medicine, nursing and medical laboratories	13	7.3
Law and Islamic Studies	12	6.8
Agriculture	8	4.5
No response	14	7.9
TOTAL	177	100.0

10.2.8 Managers Training

The research analysis of the data show that only 106 managers, 59.9 per cent attended training programmes in their working careers. As for the place of training, the results indicate that 35.8 per cent of the managers attended training programmes inside the West Bank, 27.3 per cent in the United States and Europe (Britain, Italy, Holland, and Austria), 25.4 per cent went to Arab countries like Jordan, Egypt, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria and Kuwait, while 11.3 per cent were trained inside Israel. (See Table 10.8).

Table 10.8 Place of Training Programme

Place	Frequency	Percentage
West Bank	38	35.2
United States and Europe	29	27.3
Arab Countries	27	25.4
Israel	12	11.3
Total Managers Attended	106	100.0

10.2.8.1 Nature of Training Programme

The data analyses show that 60.3 per cent of the managers attended training programmes in business administration, 17.9 per cent in higher education development, .07 per cent in engineering and drawing, while the remaining managers 14.1 per cent attended training programmes about sheep farming, weaving, laboratory work and maintenance. (See Table 10.9).

Table 10.9 Nature of Training Course

Type of Programme	Frequency	Per Centage
Business Administration	64	60.3
Higher Education Development	19	17.9
Engineering and Drawing	8	.07
Others	15	14.1
Total Managers Attended	106	100.0

10.2.8.2 Length of Training Programme Attended

The results in Table 10.10 show that 48.1 per cent of the managers attended training programmes which lasted less than three months, 30.2 per cent of the managers attended training programmes which lasted between three to six months, while 21.6 per cent attended training programmes which lasted more than six months.

Table 10.10 Length of Training Programme Attended

Length of Programme	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 3 months	51	48.1
3 to 6 months	32	30.2
6 months or more	23	21.6
TOTAL	106	100.0

10.2.9 Number of Languages Spoken by Managers

The native language in the West Bank is Arabic. Though many businessmen are bilingual. In fact few subjects chose the English language for the survey interview. Table 10.11 shows that more than 90 per cent of the managers interviewed speak more than one language. The majority of them speak an additional language as well as their mother tongue (Arabic). More often it is English. The findings also show that 32.8 per cent of the total sample speak more than two languages. Many of the managers speak English, French or Spanish. The past two decades have shown a substantial increase

Table 10.11 Number of Languages Spoken by Managers

Number of Languages	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
One language only (Arabic)	16	9.0
Two languages	103	58.2
More than two languages	58	32.8
TOTAL	177	100.0

in the Hebrew speaking Palestinian businessmen, and today the successful manager is fluent in both languages, Arabic and Hebrew.

Prior to the intifada, Palestinian businessmen used to export some of their products to Israel. They speak the language of the Israelis. Israel accounts for more than 88 per cent of West Bank imports in 1984, the Israeli market absorbed around 60 per cent of the much small West Bank exports.⁽¹⁷⁾

The increase in the number of languages spoken can be attributed to several factors. First, the formal education system in the West Bank puts a lot of emphasis on the English language. Despite the Arabic language being the official language in West Bank schools, teaching of English as a second language has existed for many decades. Second, many of the managers interviewed were educated in English speaking countries like Britain and the United States. Third, the British mandate in that part of the world has contributed to this matter. In fact many of the older generation of businessmen speak English as a second language without even going to school or having any type of formal education. Fourth, Arabs strong belief that, in order to fight the enemy one needs to speak the enemy's language. Today many Palestinians speak fluent Hebrew. Fifth, the mandatory teaching of Hebrew and English in Palestinian universities. Sixth, the need to learn Hebrew has been widely felt by Palestinians. Hebrew language has been imposed on the population. For instance, when visiting the West Bank, one can notice that the road signs and the goods and products in the occupied territories are bearing three languages: Arabic, Hebrew and English. Sixth, the final factor can be attributed to the teaching of Hebrew languages free of cost in government vocational schools. In the beginning, teachers and government administrators were forced to attend such

programmes. Some of the Hebrew language programmes offered in these vocational schools are especially tailored for businessmen. At the successful completion of such programmes, participants are usually awarded special certificates offered to them by the Israeli Officer for Labour through local Palestinian administrators.

10.2.10 Father's Occupation

The influence of the father's profession is very pronounced. 40.1 per cent of the managers interviewed were sons of merchants and 18.6 per cent were sons of professional people like doctors, managers, accountants, journalists and teachers. Table 10.12 shows that 15.3 per cent of the total sample were sons of government officials. It is not surprising, however, to notice that 20.3 per cent of the managers interviewed were sons of farmers. The West Bank like any other underdeveloped country, relies heavily on agriculture. Olives are still the main crop; their contribution to total production ranged between 20 and 50 per cent, depending on weather conditions.⁽¹⁸⁾ There are other main crops like citrus, grapes, almonds, apples, bananas, plums, peaches and vegetables of all kinds. There has been, however, a certain specialisation in products enjoying a market in Israel. Trade across the bridge to Jordan and the Arab world still account for the bulk of agricultural exports however.⁽¹⁹⁾ To conclude this section it is necessary to point out that a small percent, 5.6, of the managers interviewed were sons of craftsmen like carpenters, cooks, and bakers, and to say that West Bank managers have been influenced by their father's occupation taking into account that merchants and some of the professionals are classified as managers.

Table 10.12 Father's Occupation

Occupation	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
Merchants	71	40.1
Farmers	36	20.3
Professionals	33	18.6
Government Employees	27	15.3
Craftsmen	10	5.6
TOTAL	177	100.0

10.2.11 Length of Service (Tenure)

Table 10.13 shows that more than 75 per cent of the managers interviewed have been working with their present firms for not more than 19 years. They have commenced working after the Israeli take over of the West Bank. The table also shows that 16.9 percent of the total subjects have been with their present firms for more than 20 and less than 29 years.

Table 10.13 Managers Length of Service

Length	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
Less than 10 years	75	42.4
10 to 19 years	59	33.3
20 to 29 years	30	16.9
30 years and more	13	7.3
TOTAL	177	100.0
Mean 12.94 years		

Only 7.3 per cent have more than 30 years of service with their present firms this indicates that the majority of Managers have been hired after the Israeli take over. The average mean of the number of years of service for this study is 12.94 years which is considered to be half of occupations age.

10.3 Business Characteristics

This section of the study will focus mainly on the firms and organisations sampled. More specifically, this section aims to give a brief profile of the firms participating in the study. It will give a clear description of the firms, size age, and type.

10.3.1 Kind of Business

The companies and organisation involved in the study range from small to large organisations. Table 10.14 gives a clear description of the type of businesses in the sample. The table shows that the service sector is the largest sector in the sample. The service sector constitutes 53.7 per cent of the total sample. The service sector includes businesses like the postal services, public works, social affairs and community services, municipalities, education and health. In a study carried out by the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics 1985, it was found that the service sector has contributed the largest share to the West Bank GDP, ranging between 45 and 52 per cent during 1968 to 1983. Table 10.14 also shows that 26.6 per cent of the organisations covered in the study are in the industrial sector. The stagnation of industrial production is reflected in the decline of the contribution of the industrial sector to GDP, as indicated above.

In Jordan, in contrast, the share of industry in total GDP rose from 10.3 per cent in 1970 to 22 per cent in 1981.⁽²⁰⁾ The manufacturing establishments

on the West Bank are suffering from severe competition from the relatively sophisticated and lavish subsidised Israeli products.

Table 10.14 Kind of Business

Kind *	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
Construction	2	1.1
Hospitality (Hotels & Restaurants)	12	6.8
Insurance	1	0.6
Manufacturing (Industries)	47	26.6
Services	95	53.7
Transport	9	5.1
Press	6	3.4
Islamic Wakf	5	2.8
TOTAL	177	100.0

* Public = 56.5 per cent

Private = 43.5 per cent

Awartani 1989 has presented several major problems facing farmers and industrial manufacturers. He has pointed out that industrial manufacturers have to cope with enormous marketing problems, even at the present modest levels of output. Most obvious is the fact that Israeli farm produce is permitted free entry to the West Bank and Gaza, when trade in the opposite direction is subject to stiff restrictions. Another major problem facing industrial manufacturers is that Israeli authorities obstruct direct access when it does not impinge on any negative way on Israeli legitimate interest. Finally, Palestinian exporters cannot sustain fair access to their traditional Arab markets if Israeli authorities continue to control the traffic of persons and trade across the bridges in accordance with their loosely defined security and economic necessities. Awartani went on to add that the imbalance in

terms of trade with Arab countries has also been an important obstacle to development.⁽²¹⁾ There has been no significant expansion of exports across the bridge because regulations of League of Arab States Special Bureau for boycotting Israel confine manufactured exports to those relying on inputs available locally or imported through Jordan.⁽²²⁾ Israel regulations bar most imports from Jordan. Industrial exports to Jordan almost exclusively therefore of refined vegetable and olive oils, chocolates, and building stone and marbles.⁽²³⁾

It is worth mentioning that the study has excluded owner operated workshops with no employees. One of the most significant development in West Bank industries is the growth of the pharmaceutical industry which has constituted the most significant development in West Bank manufacturing industry since 1967. Most of the shareholders of the nine main pharmaceutical companies in the West Bank are doctors who usually prescribe their own company's products thereby nullifying the competitiveness of Israel pharmaceutical products and allowing the industry to grow.⁽²⁴⁾

Food, beverages and tobacco are still the main sectors in the West Bank. Textile, clothing and leather products are labour intensive industries mainly subcontracting from Israeli companies. The construction sector constitutes 1.1 per cent of the total sample while the hospitality sector makes 6.8 per cent of the total sample. The hospitality sectors (which mean hotels and restaurants in the study) are mostly found in Jerusalem, with few hotels found in Bethlehem, Ramallah and Nablus. As of the press sector there are five major Arabic daily newspapers and one English weekly. There are also two major magazines. One is politically oriented (Al Bayader Assiyasi), and

the other (Abeer) is of a social nature. It focuses mainly on social aspects of the Palestinian society. As far as of the ownership, Table 10.14 indicates that 56.5 per cent of the subjects work in public enterprises. Only 43.5 per cent of the participants work in private firms. This is in contrast to what the researcher expected. The researcher was expecting that the response rate in the private sector would be higher. But due to unforeseen difficulties and due to the intifada, many private firms closed down either temporarily or permanently. Private firms are the ones who bore the brunt of the intifada.

They close on general strike days, and they obey the calls of the unified leadership of the uprising and as a result the number of participants was higher in the public sector.

10.3.2 Size of Business

Table 10.15 shows that over 66 per cent of the subjects are working in small firms (up to 49 employees). It also shows that 15.8 per cent of the subjects are working in medium size firms employing between 50 and up to 99 workers while only 18.1 per cent work in large organisations particularly education, health and industry.

Table 10.15 Size of Business

Size	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
9 employees or less	31	17.5
10 to 49 employees	86	48.6
50 to 99 employees	28	15.8
100 employees and more	32	18.2
TOTAL	177	100.0

However, some of the large companies in the West Bank include Silvana Chocolate and Sweets company in Ramallah, Malheese Shoe factory in Nablus, Neiroukh Metal Furniture and Scales company in Hebron, Beitsahor Plastics in Beitsahor, Vegetable Oil company in Nablus, Al-Kuds Electricity company in Jerusalem, and Jerusalem Cigarette Company Limited, Jerusalem.

10.3.3 Age of Firms

Table 10.16 shows that less than 42 per cent of the firms involved in the study are relatively new being in existence for less than 19 years. It also shows that 39 per cent of firms have been in existence for 20 to 39 years, whilst 19.2 per cent of the firms are considered to be old being in existence for more than 40 years. The first category is the new firm which accounted for more than 40 per cent. These firms are less than 20 years old which is less than the duration of occupation. From the table it seems that there is not much difference in the number of firms being established after the Israeli takeover of the West Bank and the number of firms which were established

Table 10.16 Age of Firms

Age	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
Less than 10 years	36	20.3
10 to 19 years	38	21.5
20 to 29 years	37	20.9
30 to 39 years	32	18.1
40 to 49 years	12	6.8
50 years and older	22	12.4
TOTAL	177	100.0
Mean 29.65		

during the Hashmite Kingdom of Jordan just prior to the Israeli occupation. Before 1967, Palestinians in the West Bank suffered from the policy of "Jordanisation" of Jordan i.e. the concentration of investments and development projects in the East Bank (Jordan) and disregard for the West Bank.⁽²⁵⁾

10.3.4 Number of Female Managers Employed (Supervisors)

Table 10.17 shows that 51 firms are employing less than 5 female managers. It also shows that 4.5 per cent of the firms under study are employing 5 female managers and more. In the meantime 66.7 per cent of the firms participating in the study have no female managers on their staff at all.

Table 10.17 Number of Female Managers by Companies

Number	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
No Female Managers	118	66.7
Less than 2 Female Managers	41	23.2
3 to 4 Female Managers	10	5.6
5 Female Managers and More	8	4.5

10.3.5 Number of Female Workers Employed

As compared with female managers, the findings indicate that 27.1 per cent of the firms are employing 5 to 19 female workers. Table 10.18 shows that 26 per cent of the firms are employing less than 5 female workers, whilst 16.9 per cent of the firms are employing 20 and more female workers. The majority of female workers are mainly employed by hospitals, Silvana Chocolate and Sweet Company, Al-Sharq Al-Awsat Cosmetic Factory in Ramallah, textile and clothing factories in Bethlehem and Beit Jala. In

contrast, the majority of female managers, however, work in government jobs like community affairs and social services offices. This finding indicates that Palestinians are more favourable towards hiring female workers than female managers. There will be a fuller discussion of this subject later on in the analysis of this study.

Table 10.18 Number of Female Workers

Number	N = 177	
	Frequency	% Frequency
No Female Workers	53	29.9
Less than 5 Female Workers	46	26.0
5 to 19 Female Workers	48	27.1
20 Female Workers and More	30	16.9
TOTAL	177	100.0

10.4 Summary

This Chapter has given a thorough profile of the subject characteristics as well as of the characteristics of the firms involved. Managers characteristics such as their age, sex, marital status, place of birth, educational level, length of service, and father's occupation were all presented and discussed. The second part of this chapter has given a clear description of the type of businesses included in the study. Firms characteristics such as their size, age and type were discussed and analysed. The most obvious conclusion from this chapter is that West Bank managers exist in a highly complex political, economical and cultural environment. This chapter has presented some of the conclusions from other surveys in order to provide a foundation for understanding of West Bank Managers.

CHAPTER 10

Endnotes

1. Ibrahim Wade Ata. The West Bank Palestinian Family, (London, KPI, 1986), p. vi.
2. Farid A. Muna, The Arab Executive. (The Macmillan Press Ltd., 1980), p.9.
3. Abbas Ali and Paul M. Swiercz. The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, in Erdener Kaynak (Ed.) in International Business in the Middle East (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1986), p. 147.
4. Ibrahim Wade Ata, *op cit.*, p.38.
5. Kalil Nakhleh and Elia Zureik. The Sociology of the Palestinians. (1980), p.149.
6. Ibid., p.149.
7. Ibid., p.156.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid., p.151.
10. Linda Brown, The Women Managers in the United States: A Research Analysis and Bibliography. Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1981, p.15.
11. Linda Brown *op cit.*, p.14.
12. Dafna N. Izraeli and Others. Womens Executives in MNC Subsidiaries. California Management Review, Fall 1980, p.53.
13. Ibrahim Wade Ata, *op cit.*, p.48.
14. An interview with Faisal Zanoun, Lecturer, Najah National University, and currently pursuing a PhD in Demography at the University of Glasgow. (1989).

15. Khalil Nakhleh and Elia Zureik, *op cit.*, p.154.
16. Jacques Lobstein, Management and Its Environment in France, in Joseph L. Massie and Jan Luytjes (Eds.) in Management in an International Context (New York: Harpers Row, publishers, 1972), p.72.
17. Government of Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics, Administered Territories Statistics Quarterly, December 1985, pp. 6-7.
18. Antoine Mansour, The West Bank Economy: 1948-1984 in George T. Abed (Eds.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation (London: Routledge, 1988) p.90.
19. Ibid., p.90.
20. Government of Jordan, Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1981-1985 (National Planning Council), Amman, 1981.
21. Hisham Awartani. Obstacles to Opportunity. Journal of Refugee Studies Vo. 2, No.1, 1989, p.67.
22. Antoine Mansour, *op cit.*, p. 90.
23. Ibid., p.90.
24. Ibid., p.91.
25. Khalil Nakhleh and Elia Zureik, *op cit.*, p.24

CHAPTER 11

MANAGEMENT AND THE ENVIRONMENT

"Nature has neatly packaged people into skins, animals into hides, and allowed trees to enclose themselves with bark. It is easy to see where the unit is and where the environment is. Not so for social organisations".⁽¹⁾

11.1 Introduction

Management has been defined as the process where all the resources of an organisation including its human resources, are marshalled for the achievement of the organisations objectives.⁽²⁾ In carrying out its responsibilities management should take into consideration not just the responsibility to its employees and organisations, but an overall consideration should be given to the community which enables the organisation to exist and prosper.

The process of management is very heavily influenced by societies' social structure as well as the values, norms, and expectations of its people. Massie has emphasised that an environment cannot be completely divorced from other aspects of national life, from sociological, cultural, legal, political and economic factors.⁽³⁾

What is an environment? Robbins has defined the environment as composed of those institutions or forces that affect the performance of the organisation, but over which the organisation has little control.⁽⁴⁾

The environment structure relationship has received a large amount of

attention. The reason behind this attention is that organisations must adapt to their environments if they are to succeed because organisations are dependent on their environments if they are to survive.⁽⁵⁾

In this chapter we are ready to look at management in the West Bank environment and I hope the readers will put aside all the preconceptions that they may have. Therefore, this chapter is threefold: first, it aims to identify, describe and classify the critical environmental factors which affect management practices in the West Bank. Second, it will present the different types of attributes expected of managers from their own viewpoints. Third, it aims to give a description of the main personal traits that managers consider to be the main reasons for managers success.

11.2 Environmental Pressures

Before proceeding on to the discussion of the various pressures, the researcher finds it necessary to examine the extent of those pressures on the managers surveyed. See Table 11.1. In order to do this, the researcher has classified the various pressures into exogenous and endogenous. Exogenous pressures are those that are out of management control. Endogenous or internal pressures are those that management can control. Exogenous pressures include, socio-cultural, business-community and others resulting from the occupation. Each of these types of pressures will be evaluated, discussed and analysed.

Table 11.1 shows that not all managers in the sample are facing pressures. This may be due to the nature of work performed, type of ownership and personality of the manager.

All in all, the findings in Table 11.1 indicated that out of the 177 managers surveyed 93.2 per cent are suffering from socio-cultural pressures, 97.7 per cent suffer from business and community pressures, 70.1 per cent from the occupation and its repercussions, and only 71.8 per cent encounter internal pressures or problems. Figure 11.1 summarises those findings.

Table 11.1 Types of Pressures and their Weights

Type of Pressure	Exogenous Pressures			Endogenous Pressures
	Socio-Cultural	Business-Community	Military Occupation	Internal
Percentage	93.2	97.7	70.1	71.8

11.2.1 Socio-Cultural Pressures

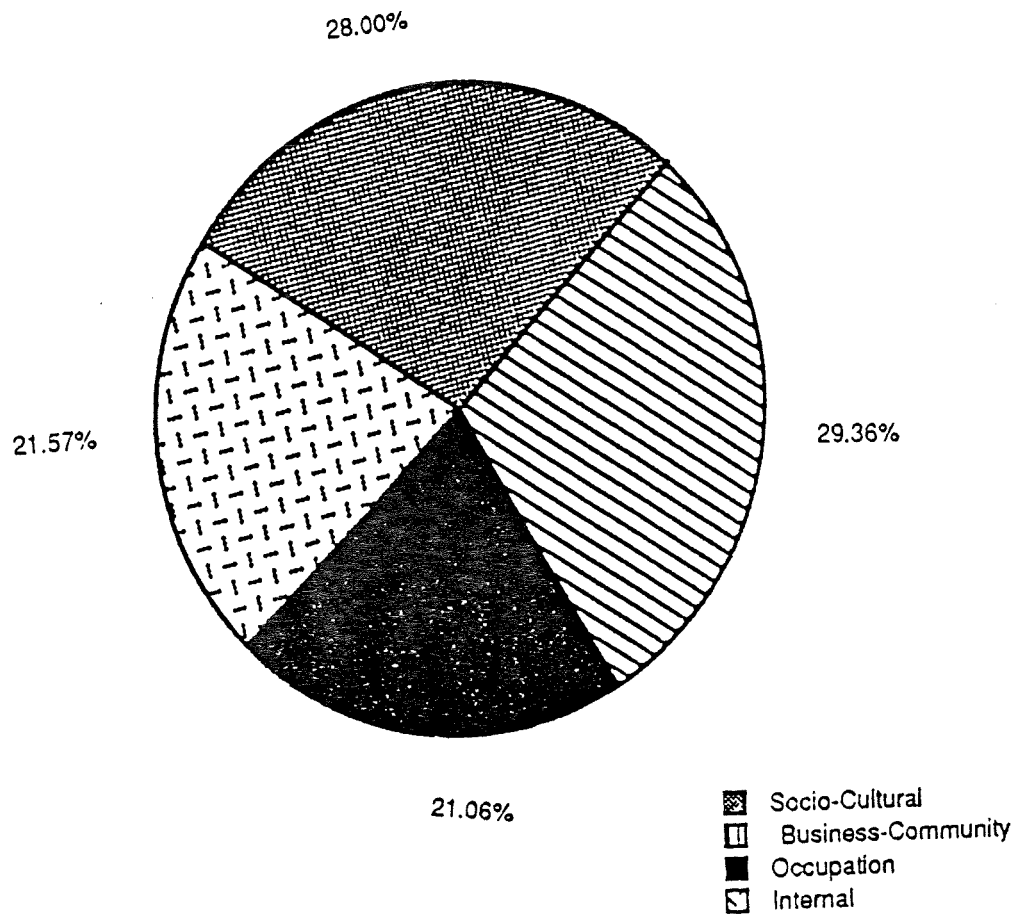
The managers participating in the study were asked to name the main social cultural pressures that make constraints on their performance. Only 93.2 per cent of the managers interviewed admitted to having socio-cultural pressures. Of these managers 51.5 per cent have complained of the low value placed on time by the people in their culture. 21.1 per cent have complained of having advertising and marketing problems as a result of the prevailing norms and values. 7.9 per cent have complained of the envy pressure, 7.3 per cent suffer from the lack of industrial mentality, and the remaining managers suffer from pressures such as the continuous demand for help, lack of technicians, low cultural level, lack of awareness of the nature of work performed and people's resistance to change pressure. See Table 11.2. Only those pressures that are mentioned most frequently will be discussed and analysed.

Table 11.2 Environmental pressures as reported by West Bank Managers

Socio-Cultural Pressures		% Frequency	Business-Community Pressures		% Frequency
1.	Low value of time	51.5	1.	Reputation in the Community	26.0
2.	Advertising and marketing constraints	12.1	2.	Social visits at the Office	22.5
3.	Envy	7.9	3.	Top man Syndrome	13.3
4.	Lack of Industrial Mentality	7.3	4.	Fusion of business with social & personal life	10.4
5.	Demand for money	6.1	5.	Higher expectation of success	9.2
6.	Lack of technicians	4.2	6.	Nepotism	9.2
7.	Low cultural level of the people	4.2	7.	Not respecting rules by visitors	9.2
8.	Lack of awareness of nature of work performed	3.6			
9.	Peoples resistance to change	3.0			
TOTAL		100.0			100.0
Military Occupation Pressures		% Frequency	Internal Pressures		% Frequency
1.	Occupation discriminating policies	69.4	1.	Financial problems	42.5
2.	Marketing problems	8.1	2.	Irresponsibility	15.0
3.	Taxation	5.6	3.	Absenteeism	7.1
4.	Low Tourism Level	4.8	4.	Lack of Training programmes	5.5
5.	Others (military censorship, difficulty getting to work, communication with outside world)	12.0	5.	Employees conflicts	5.5
			6.	Lack of skilled employes and technicians	3.1
			7.	Others (lack of initiatives, not enough authority, lack of cooperation)	14.2
TOTAL		100.0			100.0

Figure 11.1

Types Of Pressures



11.2.1.1 Low Value of Time

Of the various pressures mentioned, this one came up most frequently. 51.5 per cent mentioned it in one way or another. Managers complained about the lack of concern for time by the people. Many of them complained of the lack of punctuality and exactness.

The Arab concept of time is another cultural theme that sets Arab culture apart as being distinctive.⁽⁶⁾ To the Arabs the values attached to exactness and punctuality may differ virtually from the values the westerners attach to such exactness and punctuality. As anyone who has lived or is living with the Arabs can testify, they are careless about time. Many managers interviewed have voiced their paramount concern over people not keeping their appointments and working schedules. Many have complained of the procrastination attitude. Some managers went on to say that.....“rarely do people finish the assigned jobs by the time promised. They procrastinate, and do not feel pressed by the value of time. Nor do they operate on schedule and when they do they are either too early or too late”.

The lack of concern for time can be attributed to the occupiers behaviour and to the peoples own perception of time. To illustrate this, let us take the following observation by the researcher. Usually a journey inside the West Bank from Hebron south, to Nablus north by car will take two hours. But during the occupation this same distance will take more than three hours. On the road one will be stopped many times and searched by soldiers, and on many occasions Palestinian travellers will be stranded on the road by the military checkpoint for hours. As a result one needs to commence a journey two hours earlier than is normally necessary. One has to spare some time

for those unexpected delays. Therefore, time becomes less important and people become accustomed to wasting time. Curfews and general strikes have also contributed to the lack of concern for time attitudes.

As for the people, lack of concern for time, Middle Easterners in general, and where the predominant type of religion is Islam, view themselves as humble creatures, for whom life at any moment will become whatever the Lord wishes it to become. Therefore, the Islamic values and traditions influence behavioural attitudes toward the conduct of business and attendant management practices.⁽⁷⁾ As a result, on an individual level, the Arabs main focus is religion - Islam - and all his actions are controlled by God.⁽⁸⁾ He then prays that his aspirations will be met as he tries to fulfill them. The traditional Arab believes that he only receives what God has allocated and promised him, no matter how hard he works to attain his goals, although he is asked by God to work hard and to do his work effectively

Ahmad Abdin, manager and owner of a plastic manufacturing company in Bethlehem, spoke out on the problem of low value of time by commenting "In the West Bank, the majority of the people have in their homes what is called Al-Jalsa Al-Arabiyya, an Arab living room. These rooms are normally furnished with very high mattresses, sometimes two or three on top of each other with many pillows in the corners and against the walls. When you visit any family having such a room, even for ten minutes, they will insist that you sit down and relax in that room. In the mean time drinks will be served and sometimes dinner will be prepared. After the last cup of coffee one would be free to leave". Mr. Abdin believes that this is a good example of the low value of time as manifested in the daily practices and behaviour of the people.

The lack of concern and appreciation of time is not only felt by managers. The researcher also experienced this. The incident occurs while he was travelling by bus from Dura to Hebron. The bus had to stop and wait for a passenger who went to negotiate a business deal with a man on the road. The bus had to wait for the man for more than 15 minutes without any regard for the passengers on board.

However, managers' view of time is totally different from the way it is viewed by the traditional people. There will be a special section of this concept when we examine the managers' own attitudes toward time. However, before turning to discuss another pressure, it is important to note that the low value of time pressure as found in this study collaborates with the findings of Sulieman (1984) where he found that the low value of time pressure was mentioned by 41 per cent of the managers interviewed.⁽⁹⁾ Similar findings were also reported by Muna (1980) where he found this pressure to be one of the most frequently mentioned by the Arab executives interviewed.

11.2.1.2 Advertising and Marketing Constraints

More than 12 per cent of the managers have voiced their paramount concern over the marketing pressures resulting from the prevailing values and norms.

In an interview with a manager of a food production company, who asked to remain anonymous, the manager commented "I am unable to run an attractive advertisement for a line of our products in local newspapers. If I show a nice and attractive woman promoting some of our products in local

media, people will look down upon me even though they will like the woman. I will fall flat on my face". He went on to add "I had a problem finding a girl from the area to promote some of our products at a national products exhibition held in Nazareth".

Another manager, Abd Al-hay Shahin, manager and owner of Shahin Bus Company in Hebron, said during an interview ".....I have one of the best bus companies in the West Bank. Most of the buses are very modern. Many of them have television sets on board. I know there is a need for a hostess on the bus, but I am unable to find a girl to do the job, and if I do find one, it will be the end of my business". It is necessary to point out that in the Arab World in general and in the West Bank in particular not all professions are acceptable to females. Only professions like education, nursing, secretarial work and social services are acceptable. Although, some of the females are self-employed as hairdressers, seamstresses or managers of retail outlets. In the West Bank honour and respectability continue to be operative in defining female professions. The family reputation is placed above all economic needs. The majority would rather be poor than allow their daughters to be singers or dancers. Nakhleh (1980) and in one of his studies on Palestinians found that recent Palestinian immigrants from Israel to Canada are adamantly opposed to their women being employed as waitresses.(10)

11.2.1.3 Envy (Evil Eye)

This problem is mentioned by 7.9 per cent of the managers interviewed. Envy or what is called in the Arab and Moslem Worlds, the "evil eye" is the most widespread of the animistic beliefs among the Arabs. Sulieman (1984) found that the belief in the evil eye in Iraq is still widespread.

The evil eye is a mysterious and hateful power carried by the glance of a certain person. Belief in the evil eye is different from witchcraft in that everyone can be an agent of the evil eye. It is a projection of the destructively envious feelings that large numbers of people harbour.⁽¹¹⁾ The evil eye implies that things or persons one holds dear are continually vulnerable to damage or destruction caused by other peoples envy projected through their eyes. The possessor of an evil eye usually has no control over his unconscious wishes and their working.

The relatively small percentage of managers, 7.9 per cent, still believe that the evil eye can cause sickness, death and bad luck. They also believe that the evil eye may also be propitiated by partaking of excitement, success and blessings, or what is known as “baraka” that is the blessings.

The belief system itself includes no cures for the evil eye, however, a large number of defensive and protective measures and devices can be used. The hanging of shoes on cars and taxis, the attachment of blue beads and colours to animals and children are all used as symbolic protection against the evil eye.⁽¹²⁾ Male children are thought to be more vulnerable to the focus of the evil eye. As a result in the Arab World male children are often dressed as girls till the age of five to keep the evil eyes from focusing on them.⁽¹³⁾

11.2.1.4 Lack of Industrial Mentality

The lack of industrial mentality attitude is seen as a constraint on managers performance. As Table 11.2 shows 7.3 per cent of the managers view this value as a pressure. The lack of industrial mentality or what others might call “lack of industrial consciousness” can best be illustrated by the

following two examples as provided by two managers.

Juneidi, a well known Arab manager in the West Bank commented:

“One of our major problems in the West Bank is the lack of industrial mentality, consciousness and skills. Our industries bear the brunt as a result. For example, I remember one of our machines was broken down for more than a week because it needed a screw which was not worth a penny but which was only manufactured in Tel-Aviv, an hour and a half drive from here.”

Another example of the lack of industrial mentality was given by a manager of a textile factory in Bethlehem. He commented:

“It is a pity to see that when any of our machines break down for the simplest reason, we have to depend on the mercy of the Israeli or foreign experts to come and fix it for us”.

The problem, lack of industrial mentality, can be attributed to the Arabs dislike of manual labour, the absence of industrial and vocational teachings and disciplines in West Bank schools and universities, and to the absence of National Government that safeguards the interest and well being of its people and economy.

As has been mentioned in previous sections the education in the West Bank is more theoretical than it is practical. Therefore, reorganisation and reconstruction of the educational programmes in the West Bank should be considered. Personal and vocational training schemes should be emphasised and adopted.

This concludes the major socio-cultural pressures as mentioned by the managers. However, there are other pressures that have been mentioned by a small number of subjects like the continuous demand for money and help by the people, lack of technicians, low cultural level of the people in the country, lack of awareness and understanding of the nature of work performed, and people's resistance to change.

11.2.2 Business and Community Pressures

Only 97.7 per cent of the managers interviewed have admitted to facing this kind of pressure. Business and community pressures include: reputation in the community 26 per cent, social visits at the office 22.5 per cent, top man syndrome 13.3 per cent, fusion of business with social and personal life 10.4 per cent, higher expectation for success 9.2 per cent, nepotism 9.2 per cent, not respecting business rules by visitors 9.2 per cent, and the traditional mentality pressure 1.2 per cent (See Table 11.2)

11.2.2.1 Reputation in the Community

This pressure came out most frequently - 26 per cent of the managers mentioned it. They complained of the sensitivity of one's reputation. As one manager said "We are always concerned about what people think about us and not what we think as right or wrong". It is worth noting that even they think in this way. It is in the business interest to know what people think about them in order to build a better image for their business.

Some of the pressures are caused by the unstable political situation. This was felt by some managers among them a manager of a bus company who said during an interview "I have a problem hiring my buses to Israeli building contractors. The Israelis like my buses because they are more

reliable and less vulnerable to attacks by Palestinian nationals, but I am afraid of doing so because I do not want to be labelled as a collaborator with the Israelis. Such a dent in my honour would be disastrous and devastating". This example is an illustration of the extreme importance of reputation in the Arab culture. It shows that reputation pressure can sometimes generate fear of death on the part of the sufferers.

The importance of reputation stems from the close-knit society of the West Bank where any dent to one's honour may damage or bring dishonour to the extended family as a whole.

11.2.2.2 Social Visits at the Office

More than 22 per cent of the managers interviewed view this as a problem. This response demonstrates that over 70 per cent of the managers do not view this practice as a problem even though they recognise it in time costs. Some of the managers who view this practice as not being a problem say that it is difficult to discourage such practice because it is part of our hospitality. Though they want people to understand the difference between hospitality and business. Managers who view this as a problem say that "business is business". These managers were very sensitive though in wording their response. Some of them kept telling the researcher "please do not misunderstand us. We are hospitable, but there should be a separation between hospitality and business. One can only be hospitable at home".

The problem of social visits at the office is felt almost throughout the Arab World. For example, Muna (1980) in his study of the Arab executive, found the social visits at the office to be one of the major problems mentioned by the executives interviewed. In one case he found that one executive from

the Gulf area admitted to having two offices in the same city, mostly to escape from such visits by friends and colleagues. Sulieman (1989) also indicated that 41 per cent of the Iraqi managers interviewed complained of relatives and friends dropping into their offices during working hours for non business chats over coffee.

The problem of social visits to the office is interestingly revealed by an administrator in Beit Jala, a predominantly Christian city. The administrator commented: "As Moslems, Friday is our day off. A day when all the Christians in the area are working. When I am at work on Sunday, all my Christian friends from Beit Jala and the surrounding area come to visit me at my office. It is their holiday but, it is the beginning of my working week. They come to visit me when I am usually busy".

To discourage this practice of visitation, one manager decided to install an intercom at the main entrance of the building where every visitor has to give his name and to indicate the name of the person he would like to visit. The manager believes that the use of an intercom will limit the number of visits because visitors are sometimes more reluctant to visit friends at work when they have to go through some hassles and especially because of the Arab's sensitivity to the concept of honour. The manager went even further to say that :

"intercoms make the visits more formal by taking the name of the visitor and the name of the person to be visited by the employee answering the door buzzer. In other words, the intercom will give the visitors the hint that it is not so easy to make social visits."

11.2.2.3 Top Man Syndrome

This pressure has been cited by more than 13.3 per cent of the subjects.

These managers have complained of people and clients bypassing their subordinates and coming to them for every single matter. Dr. Kamal Hijeh, Manager of Cairo-Amman Bank, told me a story of a client refusing to hand the money to one of his tellers. He said the client insisted that he hand the money to the manger personally.

In another incident and during an interview with Jibril Natsheh, Manager of Reem Sport Shoe Factory in Hebron, the researcher remembers one client came into the office and asked the manager personally to sell him a shoe for one of his sons.

The problem of the top man syndrome can be attributed to the widely held belief that the organisation design in the West Bank is highly personalised, and in order to achieve things or do things faster one should always go to the top of the ladder. In the West Bank people go by the popular saying "It is better to drink out of the reference of the river than from the lake".

This attitude by people as one manager said is very costly. "It costs me my time, it shows lack of trust for my subordinates, and demonstrates the lack of recognition of their abilities and skills".

11.2.2.4 Fusion of Business with Social and Personal Life

This problem is mentioned by only 10.4 per cent of the managers. The heading refers here to the inability of managers to separate their personal affairs from their business responsibilities. Managers have complained of people coming to their homes to talk to them about their business problems.

Such pressure and influence was best expressed by the Mayor of Hebron municipality, Dr. Abd-Almajid Al-Zir, who told the researcher a story of a man coming to his home to complain about an electricity bill he had received. The mayor said that the man rang the door bell as early as 6.30 a.m. the time when he was in the bathroom shaving.

The problem of fusing business with personal and family life can also be attributed to the structure of West Bank society where people are very closely-knit and where nepotism and connections are becoming a very common practice as will be shown in later chapters.

11.2.2.5 Higher Expectation of Success

This problem has been felt by 9.2 percent of the subjects. These managers complained by saying that people in the community have no mercy for them especially when they fail in any venture they undertake and especially when one holds a university degree. One manager went on to say "It is good to see that people have faith and trust in us, but they should give us chances. Some of their expectations are unreasonable sometimes".

11.2.2.6 Nepotism

This pressure is felt by less than 10 per cent of the managers. The majority of managers as the result indicate do not see nepotism as a problem even though 81.10 per cent think that nepotism exists in the West Bank. Managers who view nepotism as a problem are afraid of their business being labelled as "family business". There will be a fuller discussion of the issue of nepotism in later chapters when we examine the managers' own attitudes towards nepotism.

11.2.2.7 Lack of Respect of Companies Rules by Visitors

More than 9 per cent of the managers interviewed have complained of the problem of lack of respect of business rules by visitors. This problem was widely felt by administrators in the public sector. For example, Dr. Suleiman Matuk, Edinburgh graduate and administrator of Red Crescent hospital in Jerusalem commented:

“Health regulations prohibit the bringing of food to the patients by visitors. But we still have visitors bringing cooked meals daily for patients”.

A bank manager has also commented:

“We are facing the problem of keeping law and order in the bank. We cannot make people wait in the queue. The girls object to such practice. They refuse to stand in line with other males”.

The problem of lack of respect of business rules can be attributed to the absence of a national government to safeguard the interest of its economy and its people. Also this problem can be attributed to the lack of respect of public enterprises. People view the public sector as the government sector. Some people even view it as the enemy's sector, which should not be respected.

11.2.3 Military Occupation Pressures

More than 70 per cent of the managers participating in the survey have complained of the pressures resulting from the Israeli occupation. The military occupation pressures include: occupation discriminatory policies 69.4 per cent, marketing problems 8.1 per cent, Taxation 5.6 per cent, low tourism level 4.8 per cent, and other pressures like the military

censorship, travelling difficulties, communication with the outside world.

See Table 11.2

11.2.3.1 Occupation Discriminatory Policies

More than 69 per cent of the managers who have admitted to having occupational pressures are suffering from the discriminatory policies of the occupation. Discriminatory policies and practices which militate against Palestinian businesses are becoming obvious. The discriminatory policies as given by the managers are always manifested in the closure of business organisations like the closure of newspaper establishments and the closure of educational institutions. The discriminatory policies of the occupation are also seen in the denial of expansion permits to businesses on the West Bank. In a study carried out in 1981, Abukishik found that more than 60 per cent of the 276 managers interviewed have expressed their desire for expansion of their business but their main obstacles were political.⁽¹⁴⁾ Another form of discrimination is manifested in the continuous harassment of business managers and teachers in the community. This was evident to the researcher where he found that a few of the managers and administrators whom he went to interview were under arrest, among them being Faisal Al Hussein, Ez Eldin Al-Aryan and the administrator of Ramallah Islamic Wakf. (For more information see Chapter six).

11.2.3.2 Marketing Problems

Although these problems are interrelated, the marketing problem is considered by 8.1 per cent of West Bank manufacturers as a serious threat to the success and survival of their enterprises. Many managers have complained of the denial of import and export permits by the Israeli authorities. Most of these managers have complained of the close market of

the West Bank. They face the problem of severe competition with the Israeli subsidised goods. It is important to point out here that Israeli products have the right of access to West Bank markets and not *vice versa* . Managers complained of Israeli products competing with their own products in their own markets.

However, since the beginning of the intifada in December 1987, and as indicated in previous sections, the Palestinians have been boycotting most Israeli made products, whereas in 1983, 87 per cent of the total imports of the occupied territories came from Israel.⁽¹⁵⁾

11.2.3.3 Taxation

The problem of taxation has been mentioned by 5.6 per cent of the managers. Palestinian businesses and establishments have to pay different kinds of taxes. These taxes include the Value Added Tax (VAT), Income Tax, 15 per cent production tax and other taxes in the form of fines. Some of the taxes are unbelievable, where one manager of a glass and ceramics factory in Hebron, has told the researcher that he was asked to pay 5,000 Jordanian dinars as tax for the year of 1987.

It is necessary to point out that these taxes mentioned are applied arbitrarily in the West Bank in a way which hinders the growth of West Bank industries, while it is applied in another way to Israeli manufacturers either inside or outside the green line.

The problem of taxes or "taxation" or "growing taxation" as some managers say is perceived as a war against the Palestinians, therefore, many of the

Palestinian managers today are still refusing to pay any form of taxes.

11.2.3.4 Low Tourism Level

This problem has been mentioned by 4.8 per cent of the managers in the lodging business. These managers have expressed their concern over the Israeli practice of snatching visitors away from the West Bank. One of the managers told the researcher that “the tourist ministry in Israel is always developing various campaigning programmes in order to attract people to Israel. They advise the tourists where to stay and where to go. They pick them up from the airport and crossing bridges. They do not care for us”.

The problem of low tourism is also caused by the ongoing instability in the region. As the manager of the Holy Land Hotel in Jerusalem said that “tourists do not like to come to a boiling spot”.

While collecting data in the Jerusalem area, the problem of low tourism, was clearly observed by the researcher when he remembers seeing that many hotels had no visitors. All one can see is employees. Many hotels in fact had their lights put off in the middle of the day and in one incident in Jerusalem the researcher saw the employees of one hotel playing cards and drinking Turkish coffee in the middle of the reception area with some female receptionists going about barefooted. However, this incident can be seen as an example of employees behaviour in a non business like way.

This problem concludes the discussion of the pressures resulting from the military occupation. There are other problems which are not discussed like the problem of military censorship, travelling difficulties, communication difficulties as a result of the denial of telephone services to some

businesses, and the absence of banks as a result of the closure by Israel in June 1967 of all Arab and British banks in the region.

11.2.4 Internal Pressures

These pressures or what are called “internal problems” are problems within management control. (See Table 11.2). Although the majority of us know this, many of the internal problems here are interrelated with the uncontrollable pressures.

To find out the main internal pressures faced by respondents all managers participating in the study were asked to name the main internal pressures they are facing. Only 71.8 per cent of the total sample have admitted to having internal pressures. The true response could be much higher, but West Bank managers are conservative and do not want to show that they are having problems because to them this may imply bad management or mismanagement. The most frequently mentioned problems include: financial problems 42.5 per cent, irresponsibility 15.0 per cent, absenteeism 7.1 per cent, lack of training programmes 5.5 per cent, employees conflicts 5.5 per cent, lack of skilled employees and technicians 3.1 per cent, and others such as lack of initiative by employees, lack of authority, and the lack of cooperation between workers. (See Table 11.2).

11.2.4.1 Financial Problems

Of the main problems mentioned, this problem came up most frequently. 42.5 per cent of the managers mentioned it in one way or another. They complained about the shortage of money due to the latest Israeli regulation forbidding people from the occupied territories from bringing into the country more than 200 Jordanian dinars per person per month. The Israelis

claim that money coming from outside the territories helps sustain the intifada. This problem was seen by managers as a serious blow to the survival of businesses because the majority of Palestinians have invested their funds in Jordanian dinars in Jordan. Transfers between the occupied territories and Amman, the capital of Jordan, are an important feature of the occupied territories monetary system since Amman is in effect the local banking centre for the occupied territories.⁽¹⁶⁾

Banks are among the businesses that suffered the most from this pressure. To illustrate this, one manager of Cairo Amman Bank commented to the researcher ".....I feel sorry for one of our clients who has over 20,000 Jordanian dinars deposited in our mother bank in Jordan. I feel sorry for the man when he comes to our bank knowing that he cannot draw more than 200 Jordanian dinars a month".

As we have seen this problem came about as a direct result of the occupation (external) therefore these problems can be seen as interrelated and inseparable.

The weaknesses of the Israeli currency (Shekel) and the devaluation of the Jordanian dinar as well as the high inflation rate in the territories have all contributed to the financial problems encountered by Palestinians.

Taking all these problems into consideration, one would argue "how do Palestinians start their business in the first place?". The response to such argument is simple. In a study carried out by Abukishik in 1981, it was found that more than 90 per cent of the industrial firms in the West Bank

started their investment directly from private funds or from partnerships.⁽¹⁷⁾

This example, however, should not be seen as an indication of Palestinians lack of importance of banking systems in the West Bank. On the contrary, it is the Israeli government that ordered the closure of all banks and financial institutions which were in existence in that region before the 1967 takeover until the middle of 1980 when the first Bank, Cairo-Aman, was reopened in Nablus. It is thus believed that the absence of a national government with a responsibility for economic development is the main obstacle to the banking systems operating effectively in the West Bank.

11.2.4.2 Irresponsibility

This problem has been cited by only 15 per cent of the sample thus indicating that the majority of businesses sampled are not suffering from such a problem. The lack of responsibility by employees can be seen as a direct result of employees inadequate salaries where it was found that the annual average wage in Israel is four times as high as West Bank industrial wages.⁽¹⁸⁾ Another reason could be the Palestinian employees feeling of insecurity as a result of the volatile political situation in the territories where most employees believe that their job fate lies in the hands of the Israeli governor in the district. A third possible reason could be the lack of motivation where only 0.6 per cent of the managers thought that employees need good training programmes. The researcher however, believes that the subject of motivation should be recommended as a future research topic.

11.2.4.3 Absenteeism

The problem of absenteeism has been cited by 7.1 per cent of the subjects.

The problem of absenteeism can be attributed to the difficulty in getting to work due to military checkpoints, curfews, and general strikes and to employees dissatisfaction either with their pay or with their working conditions. Robbins (1988) found that satisfaction appears to be negatively related to absenteeism and turnover.⁽¹⁹⁾

11.2.4.4 Lack of Training Programmes

This problem has been cited by only a small proportion of managers, 5.5 per cent. This small percentage implies that the great majority did attend training programmes. The findings have indicated that 106 managers (59.9 per cent) have attended training programmes either sponsored by local employers, government, or by international institutions like Amideast or the British Council in Jerusalem which is operating under the slogan "Promoting Cultural, Educational and Technical Cooperation between Britain and Other Countries".⁽²⁰⁾ This finding is relatively high thus implying that West Bank managers are internally motivated.

11.2.4.5 Employees Conflicts

This problem has been cited by a very small proportion of managers, 5.5 per cent. Although some conflicts are positive and constructive, these managers have perceived them as destructive. Commonalities among most conflicts definitions are the concepts of opposition, scarcity, and blockage, and the assumption that there are two or more parties whose interests or goals appear to be incompatible.⁽²¹⁾ Robbins has defined conflict as a process in which an effort is purposely made by A to offset the efforts of B by some form of blocking that will result in frustrating B into attaining his goals or furthering his interests.⁽²²⁾

The problem of conflict between employees in West Bank businesses can be interpreted as a result of family feud at home. In the West Bank family conflicts can be easily carried to the work environment as one manager told me. The problem of conflict can also be attributed to the various political leanings and factors in the West Bank as one university president has pointed out. It is important to point out here that in the West Bank there are various national and religious groups. therefore, different ideologies lead to conflict of interest, and as a result conflict sometimes occurs between loyalists to these groups and factions.

The majority of managers who did not mention employees conflict as a problem think that conflicts are in their business interest. One manager commented:

“Imagine having two night guards working at the same time in your company. One of them is guarding the southern entrance of the building and the other is guarding the northern entrance. If these two guards are on good terms with each other, then they are most likely to slack off and get together for social chats at work, thus neglecting their duties. But if they are at conflict with each other then the chances of them getting together at work will be nil. This will be in the interest of the company, and I am sure both of them will keep watch on each others work and they are more likely to report each other's misconduct if there is any, therefore conflicts can help uncover plots and conspiracies against management and the firm”.

This concludes the list of the most frequently mentioned internal problems. There are other problems which have not been discussed such as the lack of initiative by employees, and the lack of cooperation. These problems are

not discussed because they have been mentioned by only a small proportion of the managers. (See Table 11.2)

11.3 Extent of Pressures on Both the Private and the Public Sector

After having identified the major pressures mentioned by the respondents, the researcher finds it necessary to measure the degree of influence of these pressures on both the private and public sectors in the survey. Table 11.3 shows that the private sector is the sector to be suffering the most in all areas of pressures with the exception of the internal pressures (problem). These results are not unexpected, however, because in the private sector managers tend to be more careful about the success of their business. Hence previous findings have indicated that 35 per cent of the managers interviewed are owners of their firms. Therefore they are more willing to sacrifice in order for their business to succeed or survive. Although the results in Table 11.3 also indicate that there is no statistical differences between the types of pressures and the types of ownership where the Chi-square value is 2.11 with 3 degrees of freedom at 0.5 level of significance. (See Table 11.3).

Table 11.3 Weight of Pressures on both the Private and the Public Sectors (%)

Sector	Occupation Pressures	Socio-Cultural Pressures	Business-Community Pressures	Internal Pressures	Total
					177
Private	76.6	96.1	98.7	63.6	77
Public	65.0	91.0	97.0	78.0	100
$X^2 = 2.11$		$df = 3$	$sig. = 0.5$		

11.4 Managers and Nervousness

In light of all these pressures each of the respondents was asked to respond to the question about nervousness. To measure their nervousness,

managers had to choose from a set of given alternatives ranging from “Always” to “Never”. (See Questionnaire).

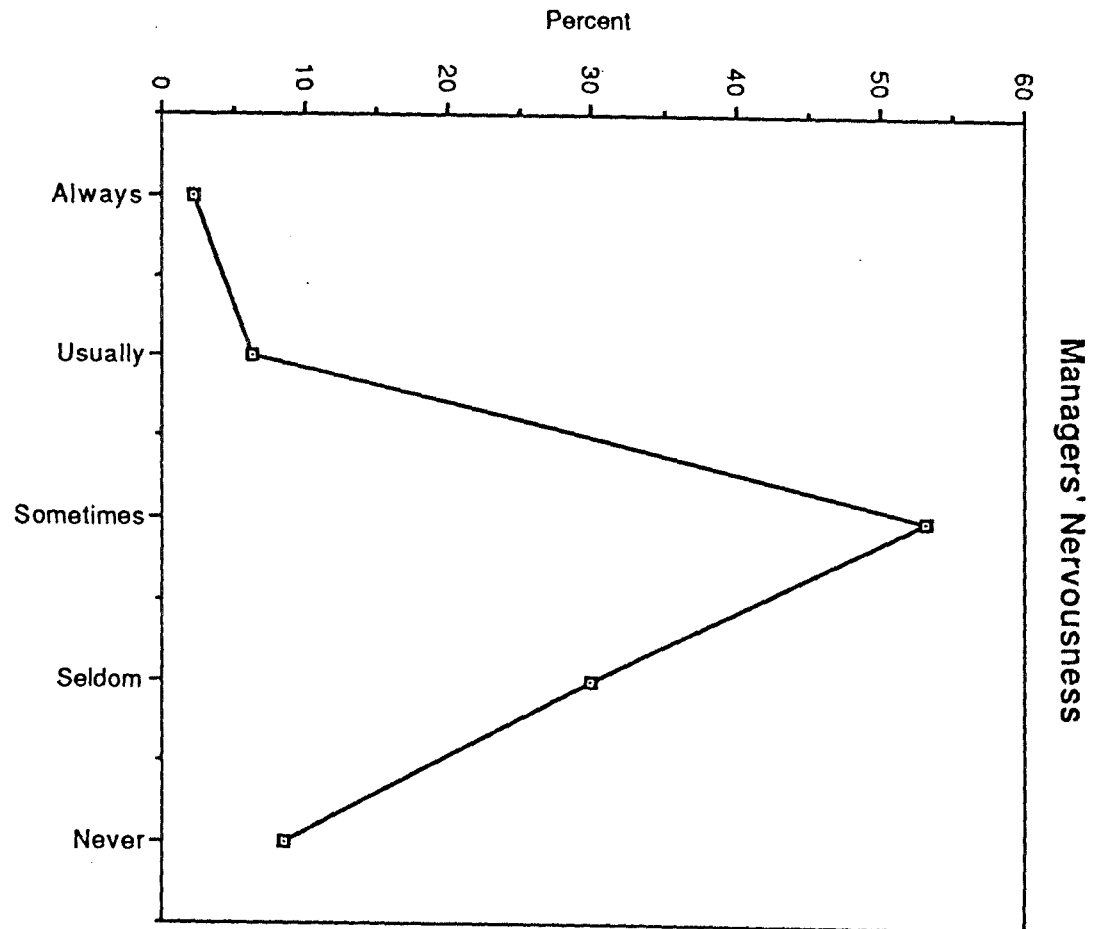
The findings in Table 11.4 show that more than half of the managers 53.1 per cent do feel nervous at work, 6.2 per cent of the managers usually feel nervous, while 2.3 per cent always feel nervous at work. The table shows that 29.9 per cent of the managers seldom feel nervous, whilst 8.5 per cent never feel nervous. Figure 11.2 summarises these findings. These results are not surprising. The researcher believes that their main reasons for being nervous are due to the various types of pressures mentioned. As for those who never feel nervous at work, the researcher believes that this is because of their adaptability to the environment, they are accustomed to it and also because of their Islamic faith. Where Islamic values and traditions influence behaviour towards the conduct of business, and where an individual's main focus is religion, then he believes that there is no need to worry over every difficulty. And as the Quranic verse says “So verily, with every difficulty comes relief, verily with every difficulty there is relief”.⁽²³⁾

Table 11.4 Managers and Nervousness

N = 177

Degree of Nervousness	Frequency of Mention	% Frequency
Always	4	2.3
Usually	11	6.2
Sometimes	94	53.1
Seldom	53	29.9
Never	15	8.5
TOTAL	177	100.0

Figure 11.2



11.5 Attributes Expected of Managers

In the preceding section, the researcher has examined the main pressures influencing managers and their performance. This section will aim to find the main attributes expected of managers. The attributes were first classified into three types. Attributes expected by the community, attributes expected by organisations, and attributes expected by employees in their organisations. To find out these attributes managers were asked to name these attributes as they perceive them and from their own point of view. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.1 Attributes Expected of Managers by The Community

The managers participating in the study were asked by the researcher to identify the main attributes expected of them by their country. Hence the language of the interview was Arabic, none of the respondents had any problem understanding the meaning of an attribute. The most frequently mentioned attributes expected of managers by the country include: national duty 55.9 per cent, intermediary role 17.5 per cent, improving scientific, cultural and social studies 14.1 per cent, and to link the company with the community 12.5 per cent. See Table 11.5.

11.5.1.1 National Duty

As we have seen in the previous section, one of the most important features of management in the West Bank is the influence of the political situation on management. This attribute has been mentioned by more than half of the sample, 59.9 per cent. This finding is not unexpected in light of the absence of a national government. Therefore, people look at the managers as national leaders. As a result managers play a big role in the community. They

Table 11.5 Main Attributes Expected of Managers

Attributes Expected by the Community		% Frequency	Attributes Expected by the Organisation		% Frequency	Attributes by Employees		% Frequency
1.	National duty	55.9	1.	Good Management	62.1	1.	Good working conditions	41.2
2.	Intermediary role	17.5	2.	Motor of the Organisation	16.4	2.	Good wages	39.0
3.	Improve Scientific, cultural, social status	14.1	3.	Decision Maker	11.3	3.	Help in personal matters of employees	19.2
4.	Link business with the community	12.5	4.	Write articles in local newspapers and magazines	10.2	4.	Good training programme	0.6
TOTAL		100.0			100.0			100.0

contribute money to the needy, they support the various charitable organisations in the community, they support families of detainees, and provide jobs for released detainees. Managers, therefore, feel that they have a national role to play. As an illustration let us take the following example. Al Zakat Committee (Islamic Charitable Organisation) in Nablus gave ownership of four of its apartment buildings at no charge to four Palestinian families who had their homes blown up by the Israelis on charges that the sons of these families had been engaged in hostile activities.

11.5.1.2 Intermediary Role

As indicated in Table 11.5, more than 17.5 per cent of the managers interviewed believe that their community expects them to play an active intermediary role. They believe that they are expected to help expedite things or influence the course of events in favour of other people in the community such as relatives, friends, colleagues and others. Managers believe that they should use their social status and prestige in the best of the community's interest.

In an interview with Jawdat Al Natsheh, a well known businessman in Hebron, the researcher saw four men come to Mr. Al Natsheh. They asked him to go with them in order to help reach a comprehensive peace (truce) between two conflicting parties.

Again this attribute can be attributed to the customs and traditions where connections and ties can play a great role in the community. The Arab respect for old people has also contributed widely to the emergence of this attribute.

11.5.1.3 Improving the Scientific, Cultural and Social Status of the Community.

This attribute as we can see in Table 11.5 has been mentioned by 14.1 per cent of managers in the survey. These managers believe that they must be “good citizens” of the national community in which they exist. They believe that it is their duty to help people in their community to increase their knowledge and awareness of certain issues. As a result, managers participate in national celebrations and exhibitions while others contribute financially in order to improve the social and cultural level of the people in the society. As a result many students in the West Bank are enjoying free education either because they were former detainees in Israeli Jails or because their fees have been met by private business companies in the community.

The researcher believes that this whole attribute is politically motivated, where each manager perceives his role as a national leader in the light of the absence of a national government in the occupied territories.

11.5.1.3.1 The Manager as a Good Citizen

West Bankers perception of the term “good citizen” differs from that of their Western counterparts. In the West Bank and for any manager to be considered as a good citizen, he / she must:

First: Put the society’s interest above his own.

Second: Be faithful to his country and to his people. A West Bank manager will be looked down upon if he is unfaithful either to his country or to his people regardless of the amount of service he provides to the wider community. To support this argument it should be noted that in the past two years of the Palestinian

Intifada, many people lost their lives and were executed by their own countrymen on charges of espionage and collaboration with the Israeli authorities.

Third: Adhere to the prevailing code of conduct and behaviour. As already mentioned, the West Bank is a predominantly Moslem society, therefore, one of the main features of community life in Islam is that there is a detailed code of behaviour for Muslims. Not only are the individual's life, property and honour protected, but his dignity and privacy is so sacred that backbiting, spying and slandering is prohibited. A good citizen therefore shows respect for the elders and must be generous to the neighbours.

Fourth: Must be humble. People of the West Bank as a result of their religious values believe that citizens must greet both acquaintances and strangers alike with "Salaam" which means peace. This characteristic stems from the Islamic teachings and tradition where it is reported that some Muslims complained to the prophet Muhammad about their inability to give charity every day. The prophet responded by saying that a smile offered to another is also another form of charity.

These are some of the major characteristics that make a good citizen. However, these cannot be applied to all cultures especially European and non Arab cultures. It must be clear that in a situation like the West Bank people can only be considered "good citizens" if they are first and most of all faithful and committed to their country and people.

11.5.1.3.2 Role of Manager as Community Leader

The role of a West Bank manager consists mainly of his duty toward his

extended family and towards his society. From these, the West Bank manager is aware of a set of expected roles and activities which he feels obliged to fulfill.

11.5.1.3.2.1 Manager's Role Towards His Family

In the Arab and Muslim World, the family has been assigned an important place mainly because:

First: The social organisation of Islam is founded on the unit of a family.

Second: The family is the natural place where a child can be brought up.

The family is the nest where the child can grow between two loving parents and from this atmosphere the child develops a sense of kindness and compassion.

Due to the highly regarded role of the family, West Bank managers are expected to:

1. Provide the family with all kinds of help and assistance.
2. Consult them (the extended family) on important issues, family and personal matters.
3. Help members of his family to obtain jobs.
4. Use his role as a means of contact, influence, or pressure, in order to help relatives get things done (intermediary role).
5. Maintain contacts and good relations either through visits, correspondence or telephones.

11.5.1.3.2.2 Manager's Role Towards Society

The West Bank managers role towards society includes:

1. Social responsibility - because of their role managers are expected to be socially responsible. Within this context, the managers role includes the

development of industry and keeping it up to standards. The development, however, should not be at the expense of society and the environment. Managers must help keep the environment clean. Their role also includes the providing of help and guidance to friends, associates, colleagues, and other business organisations. A third major role could be the adherence to the Society's code of behaviour and conduct such as the protection of others peoples property, honour, dignity and privacy.

2. Financial assistance - West Bank managers are expected to contribute financially to their society. They are expected to provide financial support to social events including the activities of charitable organisations.
3. Play an intermediary role. Managers in the West Bank are expected to plan an intermediary role within the West Bank. They are expected to help solve conflicts and feuds between families, employees and management and between students and the administration of higher learning institutions. It is worth noting here that West Bank managers intermediary role increases as a result of the absence of a national government in the region.
4. Contribute to the national interest. West Bank managers perceive their roles as national leaders. Therefore, they participate in national events and exhibitions, conduct national symposiums and seminars, and take part in political dialogues, negotiations and affiliations.

These are the major roles of managers as leaders of the community. However, these roles may vary from one society to another. For example, in the Arab World, executives lack the political affiliation and activities unlike

West Bank managers where political affiliation and activities are becoming an integral part of their roles in the wider community.

11.5.1.4 Linking Business with the Community

This attribute has been mentioned by only a small proportion of respondents, 12.5 per cent. These managers view their role as public relations agents. Therefore, they believe that it is their responsibility to keep the community informed of any progress and development in their establishments.

The researcher believes that the managers in this category are business orientated people, and therefore, they act as official representatives of their organisations.

11.5.2 Attributes Expected of Managers by their Organisations

The four most frequently mentioned attributes in this category are good management 62.1 per cent, motor of the organisation 16.4 per cent, decision makers 11.3 per cent, and writing articles in local newspapers and magazines 10.2 per cent. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.2.1 Good Management

This attribute was cited by the great majority of respondents 62.1 per cent. These managers believe that their organisations have vested in them the responsibility of good management. Therefore, these managers work hard in order to make their organisation succeed and grow. When managers were asked to elaborate on this attribute, many of them stated that it was their responsibility to keep the organisation properly managed, make the organisation more prosperous and ensure that shareholders get a fair return on their investments and to make sure that their capital is utilised in an

optimum way to ensure the long term safety of their investment. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.2.2 Motor of the Organisation

This attribute was cited by 16.4 per cent of the managers. These managers perceive their role as a motor which keeps the organisation running. Therefore, these managers feel that they have the responsibility to maintain the organisations survival and prosperity. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.2.3. Decision Maker

Making decisions is one of the hardest jobs of managers. Table 11.7 shows that 11.3 per cent of the managers believe that their organisations expect them to be decision makers. However, there will be a special section on the decision making in the following chapter.

11.5.2.4 Writing Articles in Local Newspapers and Magazines

Table 11.5 shows that a small percentage of the managers believe that their organisations expect them to write articles in local newspapers and magazines. The subjects of the articles can be related to the business or to special events. Interestingly, many of the articles which do appear in the local press in the West Bank are written by business managers.

11.5.3 Attributes Expected by Employees

The managers participating in the survey have cited 4 attributes in this regard. They include good working conditions 41.2 per cent, good wages 39.0 per cent, help in personal matters of the employees 19.2 per cent, whilst only one manager cited good training programmes. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.3.1 Good Working Conditions

This attribute was most frequently mentioned. It was mentioned by more than 73 managers (41.2 per cent). Surprisingly managers view this as the most needed by the employees yet the researcher remembers seeing very poor physical environments in many businesses he visited. The managers who have pointed to good working conditions as an attribute believe that what employees look for is good working hours and good incentives. (See Table 11.5)

11.5.3.2 Good Wages

Good wages have only been cited by 39 per cent of the managers. The researcher feels that such a low response by managers may have contributed to the problem of inadequate salaries being received by employees. As a result many employees rather seek employment either in Israel or in the oil countries like Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, and the Gulf States.

The response given here collaborates with the findings of Benvenisti (1985) where he found that workers employed outside the West Bank, particularly in Israel and the Arab oil producing countries, are able to attain average wages several times higher than those offered in the West Bank.⁽²⁴⁾

11.5.3.3 Help in Personal Matters of Employees

The human aspect of the employees has been emphasised by only 19.2 per cent of the managers. These managers believe that the problems and grievances of employees should be a matter of direct concern to their companies and management. There will be a fuller discussion of this subject in subsequent chapters of this study.

11.5.3.4 Good Training Programmes

As the findings in Table 11.5 indicate, this attribute has only been mentioned by one manager thus indicating that training and development of employees is virtually ignored by the managers, despite the fact that a great majority of the managers have attended training programmes themselves.

This negative attitude towards the training of employees can be a direct result of the lack of training institutions, technical schools, and the misleading perception of training and its benefits. The researcher believes that managers view training as expensive. Many of them do not think it is appropriate to train employees because employees in the West Bank are less paid than the employees working in Israel therefore they are more likely to leave their jobs. Anyway, Rothwell's findings (1982) indicate that better pay is the most commonly given reason for people leaving their jobs as found in personal records, interviews and special surveys. These are the main attributes as seen by managers. Although managers sometimes miss the mark. For example in a study of over 200 employees and their supervisors, subordinates were asked to rank their personal preferences among ten job factors that had motivational appeal. Their supervisors were also asked to rank the same items as they thought their subordinates would. The results were completely contrasting. (See Table 11.6).

Therefore the researcher believes that better and accurate results would have been obtained if a sample of employees had also been examined in this regard in order to see the differences in perceptions.

Table 11.6 Managers Misperception of Employees Wants

Employee Ranking	What People Want from Their Work	Supervisors Ranking
1	Interesting Work	5
2.	Full appreciation of work done	8
3.	Feeling of being in on things	10
4.	Job security	2
5.	Good Wages	1
6.	Promotion and growth in the organisation	3
7.	Good working conditions	4
8.	Personal loyalty to employees	7
9.	Sympathetic help with personal problems	9
10.	Tactful discipline	6

Source: Kenneth A. Kovach, SAM Advanced Management Journal, Spring 1980, in Robert Kreitner, Management, Third Edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986) p. 383

This concludes the discussion of the main attributes expected of managers by their country, organisations, and employees. It should be obvious from the discussion that there is an actual overlap in many attributes *viz* attributes expected by the organisation, where for example, good management was separated from the decision making process. In management as we already know, the decision making process is a major function of the manager, and as a result when planning, a manager must decide between alternative ways of accomplishing goals.(25)

11.6 Reasons for Managers Success

Taking all the pressures mentioned into consideration, one would ask "What do West Bank managers consider to be the main reason for managers success?". When each manager of the sample was asked to name the main personal trait which he considered to be the main reason for managers success 36.7 per cent of the managers mentioned faithfulness and commitment to work, 28.3 per cent cited leading personalities as the main

reason, 22 per cent attributed managers success to managerial capabilities, whilst only 13 per cent saw self confidence as the main reason. (See Table 11.7)

Table 11.7 Managers Main Reasons for Success

N = 177

Reason	% of Frequency
Faithfulness and commitment to work	36.7
Leading Personality	28.3
Capability	22.0
Self confidence	13.0
TOTAL	100.0

It is very interesting but not surprising to note that capability came third in the traits, thus indicating that a large number of managers view faithfulness and commitment to work as well as strong personality as more important reasons than capability. In the following section a discussion of these four mentioned traits will be given one at a time.

11.6.1 Faithfulness and Commitment to Work

Table 11.7 shows that this trait was the most frequently mentioned. 36.7 per cent of the managers interviewed have considered this trait as the main reason for success. It is not surprising though to know that this trait has scored the highest among the rest of other traits. The researcher believes that this conception stems from the managers faith and religion, Islam. Islam urges people to be faithful in their work and in any venture they undertake.

The seriousness of this trait was expressed by the display of large mottos bearing Quranic verses and sayings of the prophet Mohammed on the walls of managers offices and on the main entrances of the buildings. All mottos were written in Arabic. Some of them were quoted verbatim by the researcher. They include "Allah loves one when doing a job to do it well" (26) and "Allah is with the group". (27) The other motto which was seen displayed more often is the Quranic verse which says "So, verily, with every difficulty comes relief, verily, with every difficulty there is relief".(28)

The latest motto is a Quranic verse which means that there is a message of hope and encouragement in a time of darkness and difficulty.

11.6.2 Leading Personality

Table 11.7 shows that more than 28 per cent of the managers believe that a manager should have a leading personality in order to be successful. What does personality mean? Obviously individual personalities differ. So, too, do jobs.(29) When describing people in terms of characteristics such as quiet, passive, loud, aggressive, loyal, sociable, or pessimistic, we are categorising them in terms of personality traits. So an individual personality is the combination of psychological traits used in classifying a person.(30) Massie in his definition of personality said "Personality consists of all attitudes and beliefs of an individual that determine the way that he will interact".(31) Psychologists have studied personality traits extensively, resulting in the identification of sixteen primary personality traits.(32) These are shown in Table 11.8.

Table 11.8 Primary Personality Traits

	Trait	Opposite
1.	Reserved	Outgoing
2.	Less intelligent	More intelligent
3.	Affected by feelings	Emotionally stable
4.	Submissive	Dominant
5.	Serious	Happy-go-lucky
6.	Expedient	Conscientious
7.	Timid	Venturesome
8.	Tough-minded	Sensitive
9.	Trusting	Suspicious
10.	Practical	Imaginative
11.	Forthright	Shrewd
12.	Self-assured	Apprehensive
13.	Conservative	Experimenting
14.	Group-dependent	Self-sufficient
15.	Uncontrolled	Controlled
16.	Relaxed	Tense

Source: Raymond B. Cattell "Personality Pinned Down". Psychology Today, July 1973 pp.40-46.

Pezeshkpur in his article "Challenge to Management in the Arab World" has pointed out that the Middle Easterner is a religious person who considers the recognition and the worship of God through Islam as the principle concern of his life. He views himself as a humble creature whose life, at any moment, becomes whatever the Lord wills it to become.⁽³³⁾

A Moslem Arab manager believes that even his most minute activities are closely watched by God. For reasons which may not be understandable to the Arab, the Lord may intervene and determine the outcome of even his most insignificant pursuits.⁽³⁴⁾ Consequently a typical prelude to action-

oriented statements by Arabs is heard in the expression “Ensha Allah” which means “If God is willing”.

Moslems believe that their actions are controlled by God. Spector pointed out that those who see their life controlled by outsiders are externals.⁽³⁵⁾ Effective leaders in the Middle East in general and the West Bank in particular, are dominant, overpowering personalities. In fact effective Arab leaders must be fiery and charismatic.⁽³⁶⁾

In the Arab culture, personalities superimpose themselves on issues to such an extent that personalities and issues cannot be separated. Unlike the American culture for example, where it is not only considered possible to divide personalities from issues, it is believed that doing so will make the issue clearer and easier to resolve. Therefore, an American leader can remain effective and help achieve group goals even though he may have a bland personality.⁽³⁷⁾

11.6.3. Capability

Table 11.7 shows that only 22 per cent of the participants have admitted to this trait. The researcher believes that the group of managers who cited this as the one reason for managers success are believed to be the most educated people in the sample. Those managers who know that management is a science, art and a profession.

11.6.4. Self Confidence

Looking at Table 11.7 we will find that this trait has been cited by only 13.0 per cent of the managers. Managers self confidence stems from their knowledge of their work, from their education, and experience as well as

from their personalities.

Again the researcher sees these traits as interrelated with each other where leading personality and managerial capability give one self confidence and where self confidence makes one more successful.

11.7 Summary

This chapter has provided us with distinctive characteristics of the West Bank environment and the businesses operating in that environment. It also outlined the basic environment constraints which one believed to have a direct bearing on the behaviour and practice of managers. It is obvious from the discussion that West Bank managers are functioning under enormous types of pressures that makes their working environment unique. The researcher has classified the pressures into two different types, exogenous and endogenous. Exogenous pressures include socio-cultural, business-community and occupation pressures. Endogenous pressures include those faced by managers inside their organisations. Unlike the exogenous pressures the latter pressures (problems) can be controlled or managed.

This chapter has dedicated a special section to the various attributes expected of managers by their country, organisation and employees. A special section was also dedicated to the discussion of the importance of the role of managers as "good citizens" and as "community leaders". Each of these attributes and values was evaluated and discussed.

The final part of this chapter was devoted to the respondents and their views regarding managers successes. All respondents interviewed pointed out that for any manager to succeed he must be: faithful and committed to work, have

a leading personality, be capable and show self confidence. Each of these given reasons was analysed and discussed.

CHAPTER 11

Endnotes

1. Jeffrey Pfeffer and Gerald R. Salancik, The External Control of Organisations: A Resource Dependence Perspective (New York: Harper & Row 1978), p.29.
2. Meyer Feldberg, Management and its Environment in the Republic of South Africa in Joseph L. Massie and Jan Luytjes, (Eds) in Management in an International Context (New York: Harper & Row 1972), p.264.
3. Ibid., p.315.
4. Stephen P. Robbins, Essentials of Organisational Behaviour. Second Edition. (New Jersey: Prentice Hall International 1988), p.175.
5. Ibid, p.175.
6. Tim Matheny, Reaching the Arabs, A Felt Need Approach (William Carey Library: California,1981), p.210.
7. Dennis A. Anastos, A. Bedos, and B. Seaman, The Development of Modern Management Practice in Saudi Arabia. The Columbia Journal of world Business 15, 2 (Summer 1980), pp. 81-93.
8. Robert E. Looney, Saudi Arabia's Islamic Growth Model, Journal of Economic Issues, 16, 2, June 1980, pp. 453-459.
9. Moayaid S. Sulieman, *op cit.*, p. 207.
10. Khalil Almarah, in Khalil Nakhleh *et al* . The Sociology of the Palestinians (London: Groom Helm Ltd, 1980) pp.157-158.
11. John Gulick, The Middle East: An Anthropological Perspective. (California: Good Year Publishing Company, 1976), p. 46.
12. John Gulick, The Middle East, p. 46, Pierce, MiddleEast, p.94; and Hamady, Arabs, p. 173.

13. Pierce, Middle East, p.95; Hamady, Arabs p. 172; and Marie K. Khyat and Margaret C. Keating Lebanon: Land of the Cedars (Beirut: Khayats, 1960), p. 144.
14. Bakir Abu Kishk, Industrial Development and Policies in the West Bank and Gaza in George T. Abed, (Ed) in The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation (New York: Routledge, 1988), p. 177.
15. The Arab Fund for Social and Economic Development *et al* . The Joint Arab Economic Report (Arab Fund for Social and Economic Development, Amman 1984).
16. Laurence Harris. Money and Finance with Undeveloped Banking in the Occupied Territories in George T. Abded (Ed.) in The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. (New York: Routledge, 1988), p. 177..
17. UNECWA, Report on the Industrial and Economic Trends in the West Bank and Gaza Strip (UNECWA, Beirut) August 1981.
18. Meron Benvenisti, The West Bank Data Base Project 1987 Report: Demographic, Economic, Legal, Social and Political Development in the West Bank (Jerusalem WBDBP), p.22.
19. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.2.
20. Motto appears on British Council Papers and Documents.
21. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.153.
22. Ibid.
23. Holy Quran, S.XCIV 5-6
24. Meron Benvenisti, *op cit.*, p.22.
25. Thomas W. Johnson *et al* , Management Today and Tomorrow (Phillipines: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company 1978), p.12.

26. Hadith.
27. Hadith.
28. Holy Quran, SXCIV: 5-6.
29. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.17.
30. Ibid., p.14.
31. Joseph L. Massie, Essentials of Management (Englewood: Prentice Hall Inc.1971), p.75.
32. Raymond B. Cattell, "Personality Pinned Down". Psychology Today, (July 1973), pp.40-46.
33. Changiz Pezeshkpur, "Challenge to Management in the Arab World". Business Horizons, (August 1978), p.47.
34. Ibid.
35. Paul Spector "Behaviour in Organisations as a Function of Employees Locus of Control". Psychological Bulletin, (May 1982), pp.482-497.
36. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p.53.
37. Ibid.

CHAPTER 12

DECISION MAKING AND INTERPERSONAL STYLE

“The quality of a manager’s decision not only contribute to the success or failure of the organisation but greatly affects his or her personal success”.⁽¹⁾

“It is not companies who give you contracts, it is people who do”.

12.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter we examined the main pressures faced by West Bank Managers. In that chapter we also talked about the principal attributes expected of managers by their community, organisations, and employees. The chapter also contained a special section on the managers and their personal traits. This chapter is twofold: it aims to discover how West Bank managers employ power in decision making, to what extent they involve their subordinates in this important function, and what are the main variables which affect the decision making process. The second part of this chapter will be devoted to the discussion of the various aspects of West Bank managers interpersonal relationships. Such aspects include:

- managers way of obtaining their present jobs
- mediation
- nepotism
- bribery
- managers subordinates relationships
- the ideal employee
- managers affiliations with professional bodies and organisations.

12.2 Decision Making

Decision making is defined as the process of identifying and choosing alternative courses of action in a manner appropriate to the demands of the situation.⁽²⁾ Decision making is one of the primary responsibilities of managers at all levels.⁽³⁾ As one manager from Jerusalem defined his job as “my job is making decisions”. Managers decisions do not only contribute to the success or failure of the firm or the organisation, but also affect the decision maker’s personal success and reputation as being called either a good manager or a bad manager.

Cohen *et al* (1972), described organisations as a collection of decision makers looking for opportunities to implement preferred outcomes, solutions looking for problems to which they might be the answer, and feelings looking for issues on which they can be aired.⁽⁴⁾ Therefore, decision making is probably one of the most important functions by business leaders.⁽⁵⁾

Managers today are faced with tough challenges when making decisions. First, they are faced with a great degree of uncertainty. Management does not like uncertainty,⁽⁶⁾ though they must identify and follow their environments, sense changes in these environments, and make appropriate adjustments as necessary.⁽⁷⁾

In the following section, the researcher will identify the decision making style of West Bank managers resulting from the findings of the present study.

12.2.1 Decision Making Scale

The researcher believes that in order to give the reader a broader picture of the decision making style used, it is of vital importance to find out that the decision making style in this present study is measured by a four point scale continuum reflecting the different degrees of power sharing between the managers surveyed and their subordinates. See Figure 12.1.

Figure 12.1 The Power Sharing Scale

Style A	Style B	Style C	Style D
Own Decision	Pseudo- Consultative	Consultative	Participative

The power sharing continuum used in this present study is a modified version of the instrument used by Ali and Swiercz (1986) and Likert (1967). Other scales of decision making such as that of Muna (1980) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) were also reviewed. See Figure 12.2.

The scale used for this research includes a description of four alternative decision making styles. Every manager participating in the survey was asked to identify the one major style that best describe his/her behaviour. The four different styles used are:

- Style A - usually I make my decision(s) promptly and communicate it to them to be carried out without question.
- Style B- usually I make the decision(s) promptly but before going ahead, I try to explain them fully to my subordinates. I give them the reason(s) for this decision(s) and answer whatever questions

they may have. That does not mean that I give any consideration to their ideas and suggestions. The main purpose here is to create a feeling of consultation but not a real consultation.

FIGURE 12.2 Comparison between Decisional Styles Employed in this Study and Those of Previous Researchers. (Adapted with modification from Likert 1967, Muna 1980, Ali and Swiercz 1986).

Likert (1967)		Muna (1980)	Ali and Swiercz (1986)		Abuznaid (Present Study)
Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Executive makes decisions without consulting sub- ordinate(s) but may consult superiors, partners, or outsiders	Manager makes decision himself	Pseudo consultative (creates a feeling of consultation not real con- sultation (Style 2)	Manager makes his own decision
(System 1)	(System 2)	(Style 1)	(Style 1)		(Style 1)
Consultative		Prior consultation with subordinate(s)	Manager consults with his sub- ordinates, and then makes his decision		Pseudo-consultative (Manager creates a feeling of consultation not real consultation (Style2)
(System 3)		(Style 2)	(Style 3)		
Participative group		Joint decision-making with subordinate(s)	Manager participates with his subordinates. He and sub- ordinates come to a majority decision		Manager consults with his subordinates, and then makes his decision
(System 4)		(Style 3)	(Style 4)		(Style 3)
		Delegation of decisions to subordinate(s)	Manager delegates the decision to subordinate(s)		Manager participates with his subordinates. He and subordinates come to a majority decision (Style 4)
		(Style 4)	(Style 5)		

Style C- usually I consult with my subordinates before reaching any decision. I listen to their advice, consider it, and then announce my decision. I then expect all to work loyally to implement it whether the decision is in accordance with the advice they gave or not.

Style D- usually I call a meeting of my subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. I put the problem before the group and we discuss it. I then accept the majority viewpoint as the final decision(s).

12.2.2 Decision Making Style

Table 12.3 shows that nearly half of the managers surveyed, 48.6 per cent, use the consultative style (Style C) thus indicating that West Bank Managers are more willing to let their subordinates share in the decision making process. This finding is similar to the finding of Ali and Swiercz (1986) where they found that out of 83 Saudi managers surveyed 32 managers chose the consultative style for their response.⁽⁸⁾ However, the present findings differ from the findings of Badawy where he pointed out that in the Middle East the top man makes the decisions. Mid easterners are highly authoritarian with organisational power and authority very much focused at the top.⁽⁹⁾

Looking at Table 12.3 and Figure 12.3 we will find that 23.2 per cent of the managers use the participative style, 22.6 per cent use the pseudo consultative style, whilst only 5.6 per cent of the managers are autocratic. Overall, we can conclude that West Bank managers are consultative, hence 94.4 per cent of the managers have pointed out that they consult in one way

or another. An immediate question which comes to one's mind is why such a high score on the consultative style and a low response on the autocratic style? One possible response would be due to the managers educational level, their age, or due to the size of the organisation. However it is too early to jump to conclusions at this point, but one definite reply would be to attribute the pervasiveness of Style C to the managers educational level.

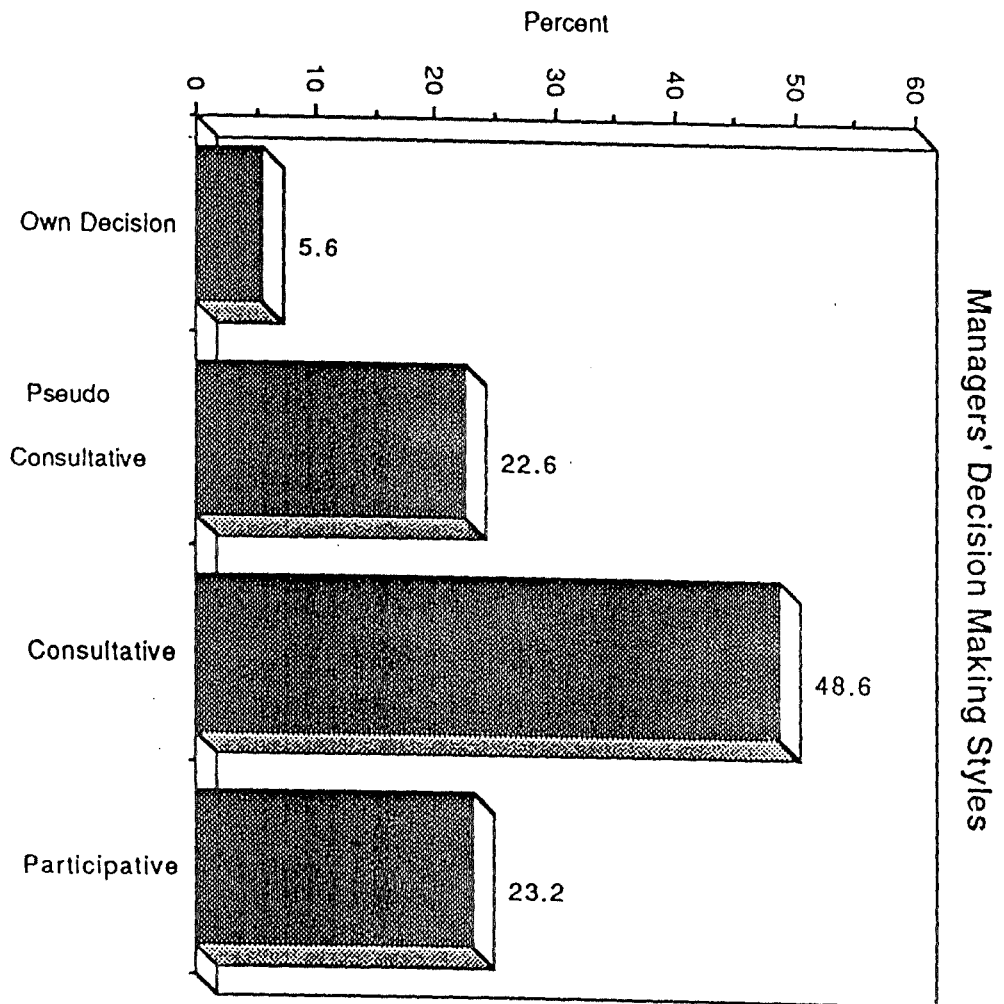
Early findings of this study have indicated that 67.8 per cent of the total managers surveyed have had university education. Therefore, the researcher believes that these managers have been exposed to Western and foreign ideas, training and skills while studying abroad.

Table 12.3 Frequency and Percentage of West Bank Managers Decision Making Styles
N = 177

Decision Style	Frequency	Percentage
Style A - Own Decision	10	5.6
Style B - Pseudo Consultative	40	22.6
Style C - Consultative	86	48.6
Style D - Participative	41	23.2
TOTAL	177	100.0

It is assumed here that almost all of these managers have obtained their university education abroad, since West Bank Universities are very young and the business administration programmes do not have a long history in the West Bank. One possible reply would also be to attribute the high score on Style C to the managers area of specialisation. The findings indicate that 31.3 per cent of the managers with higher education have studied business and commerce.

Figure 12.3



Another explanation of this finding would be due to the managers satisfaction with their employees and to the importance of consultation as provided in Islamic teachings. The Holy Quran and the sayings of the prophet Muhammad greatly encourage consultation. For example, the word consultation is frequently mentioned in the Holy Quran and due to its importance, one of the 114 suras (chapters) of the Holy Quran, is entitled Shura, which means consultation.⁽¹⁰⁾

12.2.3 Variables Affecting Decision Making Styles

One can assume that variables such as managers age, education, and the size of organisation would contribute significantly to the variations in the managers decision making styles. To find out the degree of influence if any, each of these variables will be statistically tested and the findings would be put to the open.

12.2.3.1 Managers Age and Decision Making

In order to test the degree of influence of managers age on their decision style, the managers were divided into three age groups: Young (less than 30 years), Middle Age (30-44 years) and Old (45 years and older). The results indicate that statistically, managers age had no significant contribution to the variation in their decision style since the Chi-square value is 6.7, with 3 degrees of freedom at a significant level of .35. (See Table 12.4).

Looking at Table 12.4 we will find that 48.6 per cent of all managers in all age categories use Style C, although there are significant differences in the responses, there is not statistical significance of age on the decision making

style. Table 12.4 shows that 4.0 per cent of young managers adopt Style A while 7.4 per cent of old managers adopt this style. The researcher believes that such an increase in the percentage could be attributed to the managers length of experience and to the fact that older Arab managers recognise the fact that "grizzle headed people are more respected". This feeling increases their position among their subordinates. But overall, the findings indicate that older managers in the West Bank are just as consultative as the younger managers, and as the Table indicates, 48.6 per cent of old managers said that they usually use the consultative style in their decision making process.

Table 12.4 Managers Age and Decision Making Style (percent)

N = 177

Decision Style Age	Own Decision (Style A)	Pseudo Consultative (Style B)	Consultative (Style C)	Participative (Style D)
less than 30 years	4.0	20.0	64.0	12.0
30 - 44	3.4	17.2	50.0	29.3
55 - over	7.4	26.6	43.6	22.3
TOTAL	5.6	22.6	48.6	23.2

$X^2 = 6.7$ $df = 6$ $sig = .35$ Cramer's V = .14

12.2.3.2. Managers Education and Decision Making

It is believed that managers decision making is influenced by their educational level. To examine this statistically, the managers surveyed were classified into two main groups as far as their education is concerned, less educated managers (12 years of high school or less), and more educated (college and university education). The statistical findings as shown in Table 12.5 indicate that decision making style of managers differs

significantly with the variation in the educational level since the chi-square value is 10.9 with 3 degrees of freedom at 99 per cent level of confidence. The researcher believes that university education promotes knowledge and thinking, therefore, managers could have been influenced because of their specialisation since 31.3 per cent of the highly educated managers have studied business and commerce. Another reason could be their scientific belief that participation in the process increases the commitment and motivation of those who will carry out the decision.

Table 12.5 shows that out of the more educated managers 55.6 per cent use the consultative style (Style C) while on the other side 27.3 per cent of the less educated managers use this same style (Style C). One interesting finding about this table is that 34.1 per cent of the less educated managers adopt Style B. This can be attributed to the managers feeling of being less educated, therefore, they want to show to their subordinates that they are being consulted so as to minimise opposition and to "save face" some of the subordinated by creating a feeling of consultation, so that these subordinates will sayYes, we have been consulted if asked by their friends or colleagues. Another question, why did 31.8 per cent of the less educated managers adopt the participative style (Style D)? One explanation could be the managers feeling of having those who might be potential obstacles on their side especially if some of the subordinates have more education than themselves. Another reason for the use of Style D by 31.8 per cent of the less educated managers is due to the managers feeling of insecurity due to their low level of education. Therefore they tend to involve the majority of subordinates in the decision making process. Finally, from these results we can derive at the conclusion that the more educated the West Bank manager, the more consultative he will be.

Table 12.5 Managers Education and Decision Making Style (percent)
N = 177

Decision Style	Own Decision (Style A)	Pseudo Consultative (Style B)	Consultative (Style C)	Participative (Style D)
Education				
High School and less	6.8	34.1	27.3	31.8
College and University education	5.3	18.8	55.6	20.3
TOTAL	5.6	22.6	48.6	23.2
$X^2 = 10.9$ $df = 3$ $sig. = .01$ Cramer's V = 0.25				

12.2.3.3 Size of Organisation and Decision Making

The final variable that might have a direct influence on the type of decision making used by the managers is the size of their organisations. To test this influence statistically, the researcher has divided the organisation into three major categories as of their size: small (less than 10 people) N = 40 organisations, medium size organisations (10-49 employees) N = 77 organisations, and large organisations (50 employees and more) N = 60 organisations. The statistical findings indicate that the size of the organisation has a significant influence on the decision style used by the manager. The Chi-square value is 13.7 with 6 degrees of freedom at a significant level of 0.03. (See Table 12.6).

Table 12.6 indicates that 48.6 per cent of the managers in all organisations use consultative style. Out of those, 63.3 per cent of the managers work in large organisations while only 37.5 and 42.9 per cent of the managers work in small and medium size organisations respectively. The researcher believes that this can be attributed to the organisations policies. In large

organisations managers abide by the written rules and regulations, while in smaller organisations in the West Bank there seems to be no written policies

Table 12.6 Organisation Size and Decision Making (percent)
N=177

Decision Style	Own Decision (Style A)	Pseudo Consultative (Style B)	Consultative (Style C)	Participative (Style D)
Organisation Size				
Small Size	7.5	17.5	37.5	37.5
Medium Size	5.2	26.0	42.9	26.0
Large Size	5.0	21.7	63.3	10.0
TOTAL	5.6	22.6	48.6	23.2
$X^2 = 13.7$	df = 6	sig. = 0.03	Cramer's V = 0.20	

and regulations as already pointed out in the limitations of this research. In the West Bank the rules and regulations of small organisations are in the hands of the managers, owners in many cases. They can be changed and modified according to the managers needs and desires and whenever necessary. On the contrary, large organisations have fixed written policies and regulations which might emphasise the importance of committees and meetings. Therefore, managers of large organisations are less likely to take risk especially when the rules and regulations are well known to subordinates. They, therefore, go back to their subordinates who may know as much about the work as they do. But this does not mean that West Bank managers use formal committees as their means of communication.

The question of committees was clearly pointed out by one manager of a private firm in Beit Sahour who quoted the Egyptian proverb "If you want to

doom any matter or subject a failure, just form a committee". There will be a fuller discussion of this subject later on in the study.

To conclude this discussion we can say that West Bank managers are consultative. The overall findings indicate that managers age has no significant influence on the variation of the decision making style, while other variables such as the managers education and size of the organisation have a significant influence on the type of decision style to be adopted by the manager. However, these findings differ from the findings of other studies. Muna (1980) found that the older the Arab executive the more autocratic he tends to be. He also found that the size of the organisation has no significant contribution to the variation of decision styles. On the other side, Kasim (1989) found that in general, Gulf Arab managers tend to avoid responsibility and decision making.⁽¹¹⁾ Due to the variation of these findings it is recommended that the subject of "Managers decision making in the Arab World" would be a vital topic for future research where a bigger sample can be covered.

12.2.4. People Consulted by Managers When Facing Functional Problems

In this section the researcher aims to identify the people whom the managers consult when faced with functional problems such as production, finance and marketing problems. The main purpose here is to identify the main influences which might contribute to the decision making process and to see their degree of influence on managers of both sectors. Table 12.7 shows that statistically, there is a significant difference between the managers of both sectors in relation to the type of people being consulted since the chi-square value equals 6.92 with 3 degrees of freedom at a significant level of 0.07. The results in Table 12.7 indicate that 33.3 per cent of the total

managers in both sectors usually consult their working colleagues of whom 41 per cent are in the public sector and 23.4 per cent in the private sector. The main difference in the responses is believed to be attributed to the written rules and regulations as found in the public sector where managers are afraid to make mistakes, therefore, they refer to their colleagues who may have a good understanding of the rules and regulations. In the private sectors, the percentage is lower and this can be attributed to the secrecy which is found to be a major element of West Bank managers (private sector) approach to management. For example, the Palestine Medical Company, Al-Bireh, requires all its employees to sign a work secrecy contract before commencing work with the company. (See Appendix 4 for a copy of the contract). This argument is supported by Hamdi Duais, manager of the Arab Textile Company in Hebron who commented ".....I vow in the name of Allah that if my brother discontinues working with me in this company and if he starts his own business, that I will fight him by all means". However, this argument seems very Western in its nature but it means that some of the West Bank managers do believe in the notion "business is business". Therefore, a West Bank manager may compete even with his own brother as long as the competition is fair and does not lead to monopoly which is regarded in Islam as an unethical practice.

In large firms managers are forced sometimes to consult with their working colleagues but not in the private sector where the manager is the owner. Table 12.7 also shows that 32.2 per cent of the managers usually consult with the owners of the firms when they are faced with functional problems. The percentage of private managers is slightly higher than that of the public managers, 37.7 per cent as compared to 28.0 per cent respectively. Such a

Table 12.7 Percentage of Managers Responses to the Type of People Consulted When Faced with Functional Problems

Type of People	Owner of the Firm	Working Colleague	Member of the Family	Friends
Private	37.7	23.4	16.9	22.1
Public	28.0	41.0	10.0	21.0
TOTAL	32.2	33.3	13.0	21.5
$X^2 = 6.92$ $df = 3$ $sig. = 0.07$ Cramer's $V = 0.19$				

high score can be attributed to the nature of private businesses where the salaried managers find themselves forced to go to the owners. These managers of private firms have to go to the owners of their firms when they are faced with critical issues. The findings indicate that about 80 per cent of the managers in private enterprises are owners. The table also shows that 21.5 per cent of the managers usually consult with friends. It should be pointed out that consultation of this type is free of charge. The most interesting finding is that 13 per cent of the total managers go to members of their families when faced with work problems (functional problems). Again this demonstrates the influence of the family even in the public sector. To conclude this discussion we can say that West Bank managers hardly use outside consultants since none of the managers interviewed pointed out that he tended to seek the help of consultants when faced with functional problems.

12.3 Managers Relationships

An understanding of West Bankers' attitudes is best gained by looking at the family system. The Arab society is basically a traditional society. The traditional kinship groups, whether tribal or familial remain of prime

importance.⁽¹²⁾ The extended family is a basic social unit even in the larger urban centres. A folk type of culture predominates Arabian society: status is ascribed by such factors as age, sex, or family name, and is not necessarily achieved.⁽¹³⁾

The remaining parts of this chapter will be devoted to the discussion of the various aspects of managers interpersonal relationships. The aspects discussed include:

- managers way of obtaining their present jobs
- mediation
- nepotism
- bribery
- the ideal employee
- managers subordinates relationships
- managers affiliations with professional bodies and organisations.

12.3.1 Managers Way of Obtaining Their Present Jobs

There are many ways by which one can obtain employment. In the Arab world the use of personal ties and connections is not only widespread, but is also an important and necessary means of doing business.⁽¹⁴⁾ As far as the managerial positions are concerned, Kasim *et al* , (1989), have indicated that only a tiny minority of the well trained managers in the Gulf States are in appropriate positions that are compatible with their qualifications. Kasim believes that in that part of the Arab world, managerial positions are primarily ascribed, not earned, particularly in the public sector.⁽¹⁵⁾ Apparently the way is smoothed for a West Banker to become a manager by his/her personal contacts, father and family, and social status.

In order to discover the way in which West Bank managers obtained their current jobs, every manager participating in the study was asked to respond to the questions "How did you get your present job?". Every manager was then provided with a set of alternative answers (see questionnaire). To ensure that no important answer was missed, the response included: Others.....where the manager was asked to provide his own answer.

Table 12.8 shows that almost half of the managers, 48.6 per cent obtained their jobs using normal methods of job placement. Of these managers 31.1 per cent obtained their jobs because of personal contacts, while 17.5 per cent obtained them after the jobs were advertised in the local media. It is worth mentioning here that the private sector in the West Bank hardly use Israeli media (Radio and Television). Palestinians do not use the Israeli media because of nationalistic reasons. They therefore, have to resort to the use of Palestinian newspapers and magazines and the word of mouth advertisements. As already mentioned, there are several Arabic newspapers and magazines which are published and distributed throughout the occupied territories. Only the public sector uses the voice of Israel radio to advertise any vacancy or any other business related matters. Only recently, Palestinian owners of private firms within the green lines have started using the Israeli radio and television media.

Going back to the results in Table 12.8 we will find that 20.9 per cent of the managers are owners of their firms (sole proprietorship). The table also shows that 11.9 per cent of the managers were hired because of family contacts. This indicates that in the West Bank the pervasive influence of family is so obvious. Looking at the table we will also find that 7.3 and

Table 12.8 Frequency and Percentages of Managers responses to the Method of Obtaining Their Jobs

N = 177

Method of Obtaining Present Job	Frequency	Percentage
Personal contacts (search)	55	31.1
Sole proprietorship	37	20.9
Advertisements	31	17.5
Family contacts	21	11.9
Appointed	13	7.3
Elected	12	6.8
Others	8	4.6
TOTAL	177	100.0

6.8 per cent of the managers and administrators were appointed and elected respectively. It should be mentioned here that the majority of those appointed are Mayors of local municipalities who were appointed by Israeli military governors after the mass resignation of elected Palestinian mayors. Those elected include managers who were elected by members of their boards. They were elected either because of their age or as a result of voting, as is the case in many charitable organisations and institutions.

The remaining 4.8 per cent include managers who were hired through labour offices as is the case in the public sector 2.5 per cent, while the remaining 2.3 per cent of the managers were managers who had inherited their business from parents or immediate family. It is worth mentioning here that only the public sector deals with government labour offices. Private businesses are boycotting labour offices because they are government owned and are under the supervision of the military government.

To compare these findings with the findings of other studies world wide, it was found that in Belgium in about 60 per cent of the cases , managers entered their firms as a result of recruiting by the firms (16 per cent), personal connections (24 per cent), or family relationships (19 per cent).⁽¹⁶⁾ In Belgium personal connections are more likely to be a factor in the case of older or more experienced managers (except where there is a family relationship). In Nigeria, it was found that the moment a man obtains a job he will be expected to do his best to obtain employment for the members of the family. Hiring and promotion policies based on merit do not apply in the minds of the members of the unemployed extended family. Pressures on the employed individuals is often very great, and he may be ostracised by the family if he fails in his duty, as they see it, to help them. It is his responsibility to both hire and promote persons on the basis of family ties.⁽¹⁷⁾ These examples and other demonstrate that family ties are world phenomenon and that there are social factors which determine the type of enterprise a person enters.

12.3.2. Mediation (Wasta): Background

In the Middle East, as it is in the West Bank, personal status depends on family positions and social contacts.⁽¹⁸⁾ The individual is very tied to his family and dominated by the father.⁽¹⁹⁾ In the Arab world kinship and religions are considered to be the most pervasive and enduring loyalties. The West Bank which is considered to be part of the Middle East is not any different. Kin group in the West Bank is considered to be a major unit of identity as much as it is in the rest of Arab societies. In the Arab culture, kinship is the pattern of responsibilities, towards the rights expected from relatives.⁽²⁰⁾ Farsoun (1970) examined the function of the extended family among transitional Arabs ⁽²¹⁾where he found:

First, in relation to the economic structure in the Middle East, it is the main duty of the extended family to find employment for relatives whenever possible or feasible.

Second, the extended family functions as an informal group for the collection, storing, and transmission of information on available jobs.

In the Middle East when jobs are available close friends approach the employer to help hire their relatives.

From this finding we can say that the Palestinian Arab family displays many features that exist in complex traditional societies.⁽²²⁾ Chief amongst them was the dependence of the individual on his family and his integration into it in such an intense way that the Palestinian culture was rightly termed “a kinship culture”.⁽²³⁾

This is a brief picture of the general background of the structure of the Arab society. It is hoped that such an introduction will help the reader to better understand the findings of the present study mainly in regard to this and other cultural themes. The researcher believes that an understanding of the environment in which the business exists is necessary. Therefore, figures and numbers alone, without a prior knowledge of the situation that has created them, would be an incomplete picture.

12.3.3 Managers and Mediation (Go Between)

As we have seen in the previous chapter the West Bank manager is expected to play an intermediary role mainly because of his position in the country

and in the organisation. To examine this concept further, the managers participating in the survey were asked by the researcher to respond to the question "Do you think that mediation exists in the West Bank?". If yes, why?. Every manager was then provided with a list of alternative answers to choose from. (See questionnaire). Table 12.9 and Figure 12.4 show that 93.8 per cent of the managers interviewed believe that mediation is widely spread in the West Bank. Only 6.2 per cent of the managers did not think that mediation exists. Of the 93.8 per cent, 93.5 per cent were found to be managers in the private sector and 94.0 per cent were managers of the public sector.

Table 12.9 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the use of Mediation, Nepotism, and Bribes in the West Bank.
N = 177

Type	Yes (Used)	No (Not Used)	Total Percentage
<u>Mediation</u>	93.8	6.2	100.0
Private	93.5	6.5	
Public	94.0	6.0	
<u>Nepotism</u>	81.9	18.1	100.0
Private	74.0	26.0	
Public	88.0	12.0	
<u>Bribery</u>	58.8	41.2	100.0
Private	59.7	40.3	
Public	58.0	42.0	

The findings indicate that there is no difference in the responses which imply that this practice is felt by almost all managers. Such a high response, 93.8 per cent, can be attributed to the influence of the family and its structure. Mediation can also be a direct result of the close-knit culture where one is expected to help facilitate matters for relatives and friends.

Another reason could be the absence of a national government where people can be held accountable for their actions. In the West Bank, many businesses do not have rules and regulations. Managers and owners in many cases, therefore feel they are free to do whatever comes into their minds.

Table 12.10 reports the main reasons for the use of mediation from the managers own point of view. The table indicates that 35.6 per cent of the managers attribute it to the prevailing traditions, in fact one manager from Nablus said "mediation is becoming a belief". 20.9 per cent believe that it is used to help do things faster such as to expedite the issue of a work permit. The table also shows that 11.3 per cent of the managers believe that mediation is used in order to do things against the law, like the use of relatives and connections in order to secure the issue of a building permit which was originally denied because of improper site location. This finding was supported by one manager who asked to remain anonymous but who said that "mediation is above the law".

Out of the 166 managers who believed that mediation exists, 8.5 per cent believe it is used just in order to get things done. As one manager of Cairo Amman bank told me "mediation is used because of people's family relationships. You do me a favour today and I will do you a favour tomorrow" and as the common saying goes "Feed the mouthappease the eye". The findings in Table 12.9 indicate that 7.3 per cent of the managers believe that mediation is used just to make sure that things are done or ever will be done, even though there is no need to do so. Only 4.5 per cent of the manager believe that mediation is used in order to help relatives. Again

this finding reinforces the importance of kinship as mentioned earlier in this section. As far as the remaining responses, 4 per cent of the managers believe that mediation is used because of the Israeli policy of “reciprocity”. Most of these managers believe that mediators of this category are collaborators with the Israeli authorities. They help the Israelis by providing them with information on their countrymen and in return their demands will be met. In many cases collaborators use their connection with the Israeli authorities in order to secure a travel permit for someone for an amount of money. As one female manager from Ramallah commented: “mediation is only for collaborators”.

The remaining 1.7 per cent of the managers believe that mediation is only used by selfish people who put their interests on top of other peoples interests and needs.

Table 12.10 Frequency and Percentage of Managers Responses to the Reasons Behind the use of Mediation
N = 177

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Merely a tradition	63	35.6
Do things faster	37	20.9
Break the law (do outlawed things)	20	11.3
Get things done	15	8.5
Assurance of getting things done	13	7.3
Help relatives	8	4.5
Israeli policy (reciprocity)	7	4.0
Selfishness	3	1.7
Do not believe it is used	11	6.3
TOTAL	177	100.0

12.3.4 Managers Attitudes Toward Mediation

All managers interviewed were asked about their attitudes toward mediation. Table 12.11 reports the findings. As the table shows, only 19.2 per cent of the managers believe that mediation is a help while the majority 77.4 per cent believe it is a hindrance.

Managers who believe that mediation is a help have justified their response by saying that mediation helps save time, effort and money, especially when it comes to hiring someone. These managers argue that “hiring someone who is recommended by a friend will save lots of time, effort and money on our part because we do not have to advertise the vacancy and therefore we do not have to do any screening. It is also better for our business because the person we get is already known to our friends who have recommended him/her for the job”.

**Table 12.11 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of
Managers Attitudes Toward Mediation.**

N = 177

Attitude	Frequency	Percentage
Mediation is a help	34	19.2
Mediation is a hindrance	137	77.4
No answer	6	3.4
TOTAL	177	100.0

As for the majority of managers who believe that mediation is a hindrance, they pointed out in many cases that mediation is an unethical practice and it helps bring in unqualified personnel. One of these managers even went on to say in very plain language that “mediation consumes our time, it is a

dishonest, unjust and immoral practice”.

From these findings, one can come to the conclusion that even though mediation is widely felt in the West Bank, it is rejected by the majority of the managers interviewed.

12.3.5. Nepotism (Muhabah)

One of the most important features of West Bank society is family loyalty. In the West Bank as it is in most Arab societies, the family is still regarded as the core unit of the Palestinian society. The individual loyalty and support to his family and relatives overrides most other duties and responsibilities. As we noted in previous sections and as was pointed out by Farsoun (1970), one of the main duties of the extended family is to find employment for relatives whenever possible or feasible.⁽²⁴⁾ Table 12.9 and Figure 12.4 show that 81.9 per cent of the managers interviewed believe that nepotism is widely practiced throughout the West Bank, while only 18.1 per cent did not think it is used. The researcher believes that mediation and nepotism are also a result of the absence of a national government which resulted in the lack of accountability of these managers. Of the 81.9 per cent of the managers, 74 per cent were from the private sector while 88 per cent were managers in the public sector. The response is slightly higher in the public sector and the researcher believes it is attributed to the extreme caution of private managers not to label their firms as “family businesses” while other managers cited the Arabic proverb “Ibed Tihla” which means “unfamiliarity breeds yearning”. This is a common saying used by the managers so as to show their contempt for the use of nepotism.

One prominent figure in the West Bank who is adamantly against hiring relatives is Dr. Dmona Shihadah, a French graduate, and manager of the Arab Society for the Handicapped in Bethlehem. He commented ".....I do not hire relatives even if they are very qualified. Relatives when hired will start meddling with the business affairs, eventually leading to its discontinuity. Relatives will ruin the reputation of the business by labelling it as a family business".

This finding is supported by Kassem and Habib (1989) where they pointed out that in the Gulf States the managerial positions are primarily ascribed and not earned, particularly in the public sector.

As for those managers who support the use of nepotism, one manager of a food production company in Hebron who happened to be a graduate of Strathclyde University in Scotland, justified his response by citing the well known Arabic proverb "Al-Agribaa Awla Bel-Maaroof" which means "relatives should always be given first priority".

Nepotism is not restricted to the West Bank. Tomas (1961) in a study about Argentina pointed out that "In Argentina entrepreneurs have been widely criticised for their tendencies toward cartelisation, monopolies, and nepotism".(25). Ali and Swiercz in their study on Saudi Arabia have also pointed out that in Saudi Arabia, and in the rest of the Arab World, pay is determined without regard to merit and performance, and the promotion and salary increases are largely determined by personal connection and manoeuvres, nepotism, sectarianism, and ideological affiliations".(26)

12.3.6 Bribery (Rashawi)

Payoffs and bribes are commonplace in many countries around the globe.⁽²⁷⁾ Bribery is pervasive throughout virtually the entire Third World of Latin America, the Middle East, Africa and Asia.⁽²⁸⁾ There are two kinds of bribes: the "lubrication" bribe and the "white mail" bribe.⁽²⁹⁾

The lubrication bribe as the name implies involves payment of relatively small sums of money "speed money" to lubricate the wheels of administration so that they can turn more rapidly.

The purpose of the lubrication bribe is to make sure that things proceed along smoothly.⁽³⁰⁾ For example, in the Third World payments are made to customs officials to accelerate the paperwork to allow shipment of machinery, raw materials etc. Many Third World travellers resort to this type of bribe to accelerate the processing of paperwork and travel documents when crossing borders. In other instances, the gratuity is used to encourage a clerk in one of the ministries to reshuffle his papers to find an application, which may have been on file for months, for a construction permit. An under-the-table payment facilitates issue of a permit to allow the entry of company personnel, such as the engineer, marketing specialist and an accountant.⁽³¹⁾

The whitemail bribe is entirely different. The bribe generally involves an elaborate system for concealing the use of large sums of corporate cash. These payments are usually used to buy influence in high places. They are invariably accompanied by false accounts, fictitious book-keeping entries and bogus documentation.⁽³²⁾

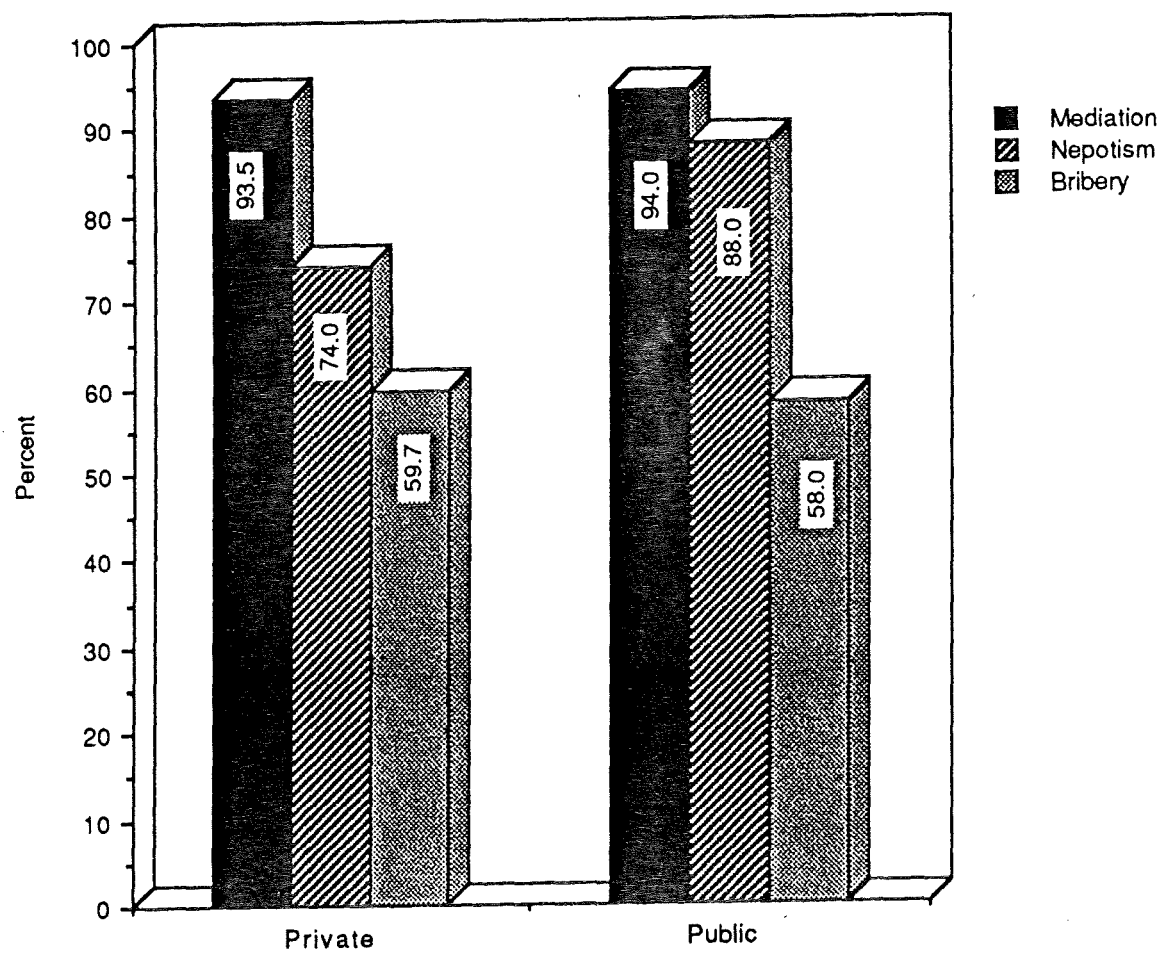
As already mentioned the bribes are very pervasive throughout the Middle East. When the managers participating in the study were asked if they thought that bribes existed or were used in buying favours in the West Bank, 38.8 per cent of them believed so, of whom 59.7 per cent were managers in the private sector, while 58 per cent were found to be managers in the public sector. (See Table 12.9).

Looking at Table 12.9, we will find that bribes have the lowest score in the table, 58.8 per cent as compared with 93.8 and 81.9 per cent for mediation and nepotism respectively. The researcher believes that bribes receive the lowest score due to several factors. The first of these is religious. Islamic teaching clearly forbids the use of bribes. The prophet Muhammed in his Hadith says "The bribery giver and taker are in hell fire".⁽³³⁾ However, it is not my intention here to point out what is considered bribe and what is considered not. Islam, however, allows managers to accept gifts and special tokens especially if they are given on festive occasions and are away from the intention of buying favours.

Secondly, is the nature of Work. Many West Bank private businesses do not necessitate the use of bribes as they are very traditional and small scale businesses. The third reason for such a comparatively low score is the size of the West Bank. The West Bank is a small territory where news spreads very fast due to the close-knit, collectivist society. Finally, people are reluctant or less likely to risk bribe taking because of the importance of reputation. As mentioned earlier reputation to an Arab is very vital. In fact, many of the managers interviewed identified reputation pressure as one of their most serious pressures. A detailed examination of managers responses to the use of mediation, nepotism, and bribes are summarised in Figure 12.4.

Figure 12.4

Use Of Irregular Practices In Businesses



12.3.7. Managers Attitude Towards Bribes

All managers participating in the study were asked about their attitude towards bribes. Every manager was asked the question "Do you as manager approve the use of bribes?". Out of the 177 managers interviewed, 39 declined to answer this question. The researcher feels that this is a very sensitive question and therefore, managers are less likely to answer so as not to give the impression that they use bribes, especially when they respond with "Yes". Out of the remaining 138 managers and administrators, 97.1 per cent responded by saying that they disapprove of the use of bribes while the remaining 2.9 per cent replied with "Yes". The researcher was not surprised, however, to find that almost all the managers are against the use of bribes and payoffs. Their opposing response can be attributed to the factors already outlined.

As for the remaining 2.9 per cent of the managers who approve the use of bribes, it was found that all of them were administrators working in the public sector. The researcher attributes their response to the following:

First, bilateral agreements with the Israeli officers in charge. In many instances the bribe taking occurs with the consent of the Israeli officer on the condition that they will split whatever they get. The researcher remembers in many cases where the rows develop over the use of bribes and where the Israeli higher court of justice had to intervene. As a result, many Palestinians and Israeli administrators were removed from their posts. This happened with the administrators of the city and regional planning department in Hebron, and the administrators of the division of motor vehicles in Ramallah district.

Second, some administrators use their posts as temporary opportunities for getting richer. Therefore, many of them take the risk knowing that their jobs will be rotated and transferred quite often. This is an Israeli Government Policy. For example, it is a fact in the West Bank that hardly any Israeli Officers maintain the same job in the same area for more than two consecutive years.

Third, Palestinian clients find themselves obliged sometimes to pay bribes especially those who are denied travel permits or family reunification permits. They are willing to pay whatever is demanded in order to facilitate matters.

These are the main irregular ways and practices of conducting business. Although these findings may not give an accurate representative picture, it is clear that practices such as mediation, nepotism and bribes are on the whole widely practiced in the West Bank.

12.3.8 Managers Employee Relationships

The manager employee relationship is another issue that cannot be treated in one or two pages of a single study. However, in order to find out more about the nature of relationships existing between the managers and their subordinates, every manager was asked to respond to the following question, on the questionnaire and during the interview: "Do you discuss matters other than business with your employees?". The managers were asked to reply either with "Yes" or "No". Table 12.12 shows that 90.4 per cent of the managers discussed matters other than business with their subordinates. Of those managers almost 91 per cent were found to be managers in the private sector and 90 per cent were managers of public

organisations. These findings were not contrary to our expectation. The researcher believes that the nature of the current political situation forces the managers to be of a sociable and amiable nature. In many cases managers are forced to talk politics. They talk about the appropriate ways of going home after a curfew has been called. They talk about the disturbances that have prevented the employees from coming to work. For example, while collecting data the researcher remembers being in Cairo-Amman Bank, Nablus, where a curfew was imposed on the whole city of Nablus. People and clients were all worried about not finding ways to go home.

Therefore, the researcher believes that the prevailing current situation in the West Bank is always the topic of discussion between managers and subordinates. As one manager commented "We cannot separate ourselves from what is happening in the territories. Whatever happens to my subordinate today might happen to me tomorrow. We are all facing one common problem. Occupation. Therefore, we have to show that we care about one another".

Table 12.12 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Question of Discussion of Non Business Matters with Subordinates at work.
N = 177

Discuss Matters other than Business with subordinates	Yes	No	Total Percentage
Private	90.9	9.1	100.0
Public	90.0	10.0	100.0
TOTAL	90.4	9.6	100.0

12.3.9. Subordinates Fear of Managers

The main purpose of this section is to find out the degree of fear of managers from their own point of view. Every manager was asked to respond to the question "In your opinion, how frequently in your work environment are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with you?". The manager was then asked to tick one answer out of five alternatives: very frequently, frequently, sometimes, seldom, very seldom.

Table 12.13 reports that 33.3 per cent of the managers have indicated that their subordinates are sometimes afraid to express their disagreements. The results also indicate that 9.6 per cent of the managers believe that subordinates are either frequently or very frequently afraid to express their disagreement with them as managers. This means that almost 43 per cent of the managers believe that their subordinates feel afraid of their managers.

The researcher attributes this feeling of fear to several factors. First, the power embodied in the hands of managers. Subordinates are sometimes afraid because of the coercive power. Many of them might feel that they will be punished if they voice any disagreement. Such punishment might include demotion, no promotion, dismissal and sometimes transfer to work location where they would otherwise not prefer to go.

Second, subordinates feeling that most businesses in the West Bank are highly personalised. They feel that managers are all in all. Managers can do whatever pleases them in the absence of a national government. Therefore, they believe that managers have the right to punish and reward, and as a result they do not try to antagonise them.

Third, the communication system. The fear of subordinates can also be attributed to the type of communication system implemented. Many organisations encourage the upward type of communication, while others do not. On the other hand, many managers and administrators adopt the open door policy while others are very strict.

Fourth, employees are sometimes afraid of their managers and this can also be attributed to the narrow understanding of managers. Managers sometimes do not differentiate between arguments and criticisms.

Results indicate that the majority of managers, 57.1 per cent, did not feel that their subordinates were afraid of them. This feeling can be attributed to the leadership style. As we have already pointed out, West Bank managers on average, are consultative thus removing some of the obstacles that may hinder the communication process within the organisation especially the upward and grapevine communications.

Table 12.13 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Question of Subordinates Fear
N = 177

Degree of Fear	Frequency	Percentage
Very frequently	3	1.7
Frequently	14	7.9
Sometimes	59	33.3
Seldom	57	32.2
Very seldom	44	24.9
TOTAL	177	100.0

It is necessary to point out here that these findings may not reflect the genuine feeling. The picture would only be complete if the same type of question was applied to randomly selected employees within these organisations. Only then can one say that these responses give a perfectly representative picture.

12.3.10 The Ideal Employee (Al-Amel Al-Mithali)

In the Middle East, top management tends to superimpose its personality on the organisation.⁽³⁴⁾ Because of this, executives selecting personnel give priority to the individual who offers complete loyalty to his superior. In fact personnel selection in general from the top to the bottom of an Arab organisation, is likely to be influenced by considerations of loyalty.⁽³⁵⁾ The concern for demonstrating loyalty, by the way, often explains why some managers willingly take work home at night, or come in at weekends, and even accept transfers to cities where they would prefer not to go. This demonstrates that loyalty norms are widespread in organisations.

In order to give a better understanding of West Bank managers views of employee loyalty, every manager in the survey was asked to respond to the question "What is an ideal employee from your own point of view?". Every manager was then asked to respond with one answer from a list of provided answers. (See questionnaire). In order to make sure that no important opinion was missed, the responses included the item: Otherswhere managers had to furbish their own answers. Table 12.14 shows that about 64 per cent of the managers believe that the ideal employee is the one who is loyal to the firm. This implies that the majority of the managers in the West Bank put the welfare of the organisation before all else.

Table 12.14 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to what is an Ideal Employee?

N = 177

Quality	Frequency	Percentage
Loyal to the firm	113	63.8
Loyal to the job	50	28.2
One who uses logic	6	3.4
Faithful to customers	4	2.3
Loyal to God	2	1.1
Loyal to manager	2	1.1
TOTAL	177	100.0

Table 12.14 also shows that 28.2 per cent of the managers think of an ideal employee as the one who is loyal to the job. The remaining managers see the ideal employee as one who uses logic 3.4 per cent of the time. This point was strongly emphasised by Muhammad Abu Hashim, manager of a construction firm in Hebron who commented: "The ideal employee is the one who uses logic at work. The one who uses his mind. Not like one of my employees who came to work in the asphalt and construction industry wearing flip flops. This is appalling. Our employees do not think".

Of the remaining managers 2.3 per cent view the ideal employee as the one who is faithful to customers. As one administrator of a hospital in Nablus told me: "The ideal employee is the one who is more faithful to patients". 1.1 per cent of the managers see an ideal employee as the one being more loyal to God. This point was emphasised by two managers, one in the Islamic Wakf in Hebron and the other a manager of a food production plant in Jerusalem. The most interesting finding is that only 1.1 per cent of the

managers view the ideal employee as the one who is more loyal to them. This finding differs from other findings where for instance, Pezeshkpur (1978) in his study *Challenge to Management in the Arab World* has indicated that Arab executives selecting personnel give priority to the individual who will offer complete loyalty to his superiors and he also pointed that Arab subordinates serve as a buffer for their superiors.⁽³⁶⁾ (Lauter 1970) pointed out that in the Middle East loyalty to executives counts more than ability.⁽³⁷⁾ The researcher believes that such variations in the findings could be attributed to the high educational level attained by West Bank managers and due to their area of specialisation where 31.1 per cent of the managers interviewed have studied management and commerce. Therefore, West Bank managers are influenced by business teaching and business philosophy.

12.3.11 Ideal Employee and Business Sectors

The main purpose of this section is to determine the differences of opinions toward the meaning of an ideal employee by managers of both the private and public sector. The statistical results indicate that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of managers in both the private and the public sector with regard to the description of an ideal employee since the Chi-square value is 4.62 with 2 degrees of freedom at a significant level of 0.09. See Table 12.15.

The results in Table 12.15 clearly indicate that 63.8 per cent of the total managers view an ideal employee as the one being more loyal to the firm of whom 71.4 per cent are managers in the private sector and 58 per cent are managers of public firms and organisations. Why such a big difference in the responses? The researcher believes that private managers are more

concerned about the well being of the firm. They are therefore, more concerned about its image and reputation hence almost 80 per cent of the private firms are owned by the managers, whereas in public firms managers

Table 12.15 Perception of an Ideal Employee by Sectors (Percent)

N = 177

Ideal Employee Sector	Loyal to the firm	Loyal to the job	Others
Private	71.4	24.7	3.9
Public	58.0	31.0	11.0
TOTAL	63.8	28.2	7.9

$\chi^2 = 4.62$ $df = 2$ $sig. = 0.09$ Cramer's V = 0.16

believe they are like any other employee. The only difference being in his/her title. Therefore he might be less concerned about the firm and its success.

Looking at Table 12.15 we will also find that out of the 28.2 per cent of the managers who described an ideal employee as the one who is more loyal to the job, 31 per cent are managers in the public sector, while 24.7 per cent are managers in the private sector. Although there is not much difference in the responses, the researcher believes that if an employee is not loyal to the job in the private sector, he will be more likely to transfer to another job within the firm, while in the public sector where an employee is found to be unfaithful to his job he will be transferred to other jobs of similar nature but in different firms and in different locations such as the teacher or doctor who might be transferred to a different school or hospital in a different city. Therefore it is believed that public managers view job loyalty as more important than managers of the private sector.

The table also indicates that 7.9 per cent of the managers described an ideal employee as being one who uses logic, is faithful to customers, loyal to God and loyal to the manager. However, there is not much difference in the responses of both types of managers.

To conclude this discussion we can say that although these findings may not reflect the real feeling of the managers, they do, however, indicate that West Bank managers on the whole put the needs of their organisations and jobs on top of all other matters.

12.3.12 Managers Affiliation with Professional Bodies - Background

There is no single reason why individuals join groups.⁽³⁸⁾ Because different people belong to a different number of groups, then it is obvious that different groups provide different services to their members. Robbins (1988) has cited various reasons for joining groups: security, status, self-esteem, affiliation, power and goal achievement.⁽³⁹⁾

In the Middle East group membership is influenced by one's social and political stratification. Therefore, group memberships are not indiscriminately open to all people. In general Middle Easterners usually seek membership in the groups that offer them potential for elevating their social standing. But the wealthy are not necessarily part of the elite. Status is more hotly pursued than financial gain.

In most Arab cultures wealthy citizens often affiliate themselves with groups in order to obtain important social or political position so as to improve their status.⁽⁴⁰⁾ Unlike the West Bank where the prevailing political situation

has a significant influence on unions and their membership. In the West Bank trade unions proliferate, yet they are joined by few members. (See Table 12.16).

Labour and trade unions in the West Bank are among the well known bodies which contribute significantly to the improvement of social services in the West Bank community, yet they do not enjoy the support of a large number of professional people.

In light of the absence of a national government in the West Bank, these unions (Table 12.16) along with other unions (Table 12.17) and municipalities throughout the West Bank began to consider themselves as the national government body for the local Palestinians inside the West Bank. As a result, many Union Leaders and municipality elected mayors always get the attention of the local and foreign media.

Table 12.16 Major Unions Operating in the West Bank

Union Type	Location
Commercial Vehicles Drivers	Nablus
Construction and Public Employees	Ramallah
Construction and Public Employees	Tulkarem
Engineers Union	Beit Hanna -Jerusalem
Federation of Vocation Unions	Jerusalem
Gas Bottle Distributors	Ramallah
Workers and employees of Jerusalem Electricity Company	Jerusalem
Workers Union	Bethlehem
Workers Union	Ramallah
Employees Union	An-Najah National University Nablus
Pharmacists Union	Jerusalem
Palestinian Writers Union	Jerusalem
Physicians Union	Jerusalem
Solicitors Union	Jerusalem

Source: Nakhleh, E.A. The West Bank and Gaza: Towards the Making of a Palestinian State 1979, p.34 with modification by the researcher.

Table 12.17 shows that Palestinian women through these unions have exhibited interest in maintaining and preserving Palestinian culture and identity. These groups are considered to be the primary source of identity for the Palestinian females. A Palestinian female joins and functions as a member of that group where her personality is developed and enhanced through participation in the collective good.⁽⁴¹⁾

Table 12.17 Palestinian Womens Organisations in the West Bank

Year of Establish- ment	Palestinian Womens Organisations	Location
1921	The Arab Womens Society of Nablus	Nablus
1925	The Association of Womens Renaissance of Ramallah	Ramallah
1928	Women's Auxiliary for Child Welfare and Motherhood of Nablus	Nablus
1929	The Arab Women's Congress of Jerusalem	Jerusalem
1939	The Arab Women's Society of Ramallah	Ramallah
1944	The Women's Auxiliary for Childwelfare of Beit Jala	Beit Jala
1945	The Association of Childwelfare of Ramallah	Ramallah
1947	The Arab Women's Society of Bethlehem	Bethlehem
1948	Institute of the Arab Child of Jerusalem	Jerusalem
1949	Home for Refugee Girls of Jerusalem	Jerusalem
1955	The Arab Women's Society of Tulkarm	Tulkarm
1956	The Arab Women's Society of Al-Bireh	Al Bireh/ Ramallah
1956	The Hebron Women's Association	Hebron
1956	The Arab Women's Association of Beit Sahour	Beit Sahour
1960	The Women's Benevolent Association of Qualqilya	Qualqilya
1961	The Association for the Renaissance of Rural Women of Dura	Dura-Hebron
1963	The Women's Benevolent Association of Jericho	Jericho
1964	Halhoul Women's Benevolent Association of Hebron	Halhoul-Hebron
1965	Association for Welfare and Family Planning of Nablus	Nablus
1965	Association for Family Revitalisation of Al-Bireh	Al-Bireh/ Ramallah
1969	Association for Family Planning and Welfare of Hebron	Hebron

Source: Nakhleh, K. and Zureik The Sociology of the Palestinians, 1980, pp.167-170

The Palestinian woman strives to maintain the moves and expectations of the group through mutual cooperation and participation. She joins and participates while at the same time has to maintain the honour of her family, and under no condition has she to compromise herself, her mission or the trust envisaged in her by others.⁽⁴²⁾ However, there will be a fuller discussion of Palestinian females and their involvement in management later in this study.

12.3.13 Managers Affiliation with Professional Bodies

Every manager participating in the survey was asked to respond to the question: "Do you belong to a professional association?". Each of the managers was asked to respond with "Yes" or "No". Table 12.18 reports that trade unions and professional bodies have little appeal to West Bank managers and administrators.

Table 12.18 Managers Affiliation With Professional Bodies by Sectors

Belong to Professional Body Sector	Yes	No	Total Percentage
Private	37.7	62.3	100.0
Public	53.0	47.0	100.0
TOTAL	46.3	53.7	100.0

Out of 177 managers interviewed only 46.3 per cent of them reported that they belong to professional bodies while the majority 53.7 do not. One might ask, why such a low score? What is the importance of unions if only 46.3 per cent of the managers interviewed are members?

One argument, of equal relevance, would be managers dissatisfaction with the unions and their services. Many managers when asked about their affiliation responded by saying "these are political unions, they only care about politics rather than the development and improvement of the employees and workers affairs". In fact, one manager commented: "We do not want any more headaches, these unions, as you can see, are the target of the Israeli intelligence". Therefore the researcher believes that the main reason for this low score is the poor perception of unions by the great majority of the people in the West Bank.

Another argument would be that union membership is not indiscriminately open to the public. Many unions are specialised, many of them require a certain type of educational level. For example, the engineering unions require those who want to join to produce a university diploma, while the employees union of An-Najah National University demands its candidates to have at least two years college diploma as a condition for membership. A third major reason for not joining Unions could be financial. Some managers pointed out that they sometimes cannot afford to pay the annual fee of 120 J.D. It is important to point out that unions such as the physicians, engineers and pharmacists require higher fees for their membership than any other union in the territories.

Looking at Table 12.18, we notice that out of the 46.3 per cent of those managers belonging to professional bodies 53 per cent are managers working in the public sector while only 37.7 per cent are managers of the private sector. Such difference in the response would be attributed to the nature of ownership. Almost 80 per cent of the managers of the private sector in this study are owners, therefore, they do not see a need for joining

unions especially because they understand that the main purpose of unions in general is to represent and defend its members in front of the management. On the contrary managers in the public sector see an important need to join unions so that they can present their issues and complaints to the Israeli government in charge. However, some unions are still unfounded like the public education teachers union. In 1980, government teachers went on strike demanding the granting of permission for public teachers unions. As a result many teachers were arrested, jailed and sacked from their posts.

This concludes our discussion of union membership, but before turning on to the next subject, union attendance, we can say that on the whole, West Bank unions are poorly perceived and therefore have little appeal to West Bank Managers. The majority of the West Bank managers interviewed in this study believe that unions are more political than professional. They believe that unions put a lot of emphasis on the political developments in the region rather than the improvement and development of its members affairs.

12.3.14 Professional Bodies Attendance

All managers who admitted to being members of professional bodies were asked the question: "How often do you attend meetings of your professional body?" The managers were then asked to reply with one of the following answers: Quite often, seldom, never.

Table 12.19 shows that out of the 82 managers who are members of professional bodies, only 63.4 per cent attend meetings quite often. The table shows that 34.1 per cent of the managers seldom visit their professional bodies while 2.4 per cent of the managers never visited their professional association.

Table 12.19 Percentage Distribution of Managers Attendance at Meetings of their Professional Bodies

Degree of Attendance	Percentage
Quite Often	63.4
Seldom	34.1
Never	2.4
TOTAL	100.0

The researcher attributes this low score of attendance to two main factors. First, members dissatisfaction with their unions. As already mentioned, unions are perceived as more political than professional. Second, members are afraid to go to their unions for fear of reprisals of the Israeli secret intelligence "Mukhabarat" in the form of administrative harassment, arrest or imprisonment.⁽⁴³⁾ Kessar, Histadrut's (Israeli Labour Federation) general in an interview with the Guardian 1990 reported:

".....some Palestinian unions are being used as a front to cover terrorist activities. A court of law is the appropriate place for such charges to be tried".⁽⁴⁴⁾

Third, union attendance demands time on the part of the managers. Fourth, union attendance may cause personal and family life disruption.

12.4 Summary

Management in the West Bank displays the same diversity that distinguishes the region as a whole.

This chapter has been so beneficial in highlighting the various decision making styles implemented by West Bank managers. From the discussion

it was so apparent that the consultative style (style C) is the most widely spread style in the West Bank. The chapter also identified the two major variables that had a significant contribution to the variation in management decision making styles. The two variables were: managers education and the size of the organisation.

The second part of the chapter was helpful in giving us a broader understanding of West Bank managers interpersonal styles. Aspects such as managers way of obtaining their present jobs, mediation, nepotism, bribery, managers subordinates relationship, the ideal employee, and managers affiliation with professional bodies and organisations were all discussed and analysed. Among the most interesting findings which were found were:

- (a) Almost half of the managers interviewed got their jobs through normal methods.
- (b) The great majority of West Bank managers believe that mediation (go between) is widely practiced in the West Bank. Although the majority of the managers believe that it is used mainly because of the prevailing traditions. However, 77.4 per cent of the managers interviewed are against the use of mediation. To them mediation is a hindrance in conducting their business.
- (c) Irregular practices of conducting business such as nepotism and pay offs are believed to be widely used in the West Bank. Although almost all of the managers interviewed are against the use of such practices.
- (d) The findings indicate that the great majority of West Bank employees work in congenial environments. Over 90 per cent of the managers interviewed discuss matters other than business with their subordinates.

However 42.9 per cent of the managers still believe that subordinates have some type of fear of their managers. They are afraid to voice disagreement with their managers.

- (e) The majority of West Bank managers view an ideal employee as one who is most loyal to the firm or organisation in which he works.
- (f) Although, unions are proliferate in the West Bank, they are joined by less than half of the managers interviewed, 46.3 per cent. From the findings it was apparent that only 63.4 per cent of the managers interviewed attend their unions quite often.

The results as appeared in this chapter lend strong support of Bhagat and McQuaids (1982) call for more cross-cultural research, especially research designed to help identify and explain the influence of culture on managerial performance.⁽⁴⁵⁾

CHAPTER 12

Endnotes

1. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 199
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. Cohen *et al* , Management and Organisations in Peter Lawrence and Ken Elliott, (Eds.) Introducing Management. (London: Penguin, 1985), p.75.
5. Abbas Ali and Paul M. Swiercz, The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia in Fredener Kaynak (Ed), International Business in the Middle East. (New York: Walter de Gruyter 1986), p.139.
6. Stephen P. Robbins, Essentials of Organisational Behaviour, Second Edition (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1988), p. 175.
7. Ibid., p. 174
8. Abbas Ali and Paul M. Swiercz, The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia in Erdener Kaynak (Ed), p. 144.
9. M.K. Badawy. Styles of Mid Eastern Managers, California Management Review, Vol. XXII, No. 2 (Spring 1980), p. 51-59.
10. Farid Muna, *op cit.*, p.59.
11. M. Kassem and G. Habib, Strategic Management of Services in the Arab Gulf States: Company and Industry Cases (New York: de Gruyter, 1989), p. 17.
12. Ibid., pp.12-13.
13. Ibid., p.13.

14. Farid Muna, *op cit.*, p.74.
15. M. Kassem and G. Habib, *op cit.*, p.4.
16. E. Dassel, Management and Its Environment in Belgium in Joseph L. Massie and Jan Luytjes (Eds). Management in an International Context (New York: Harper & Row, 1972), p.90.
17. Ibid., p.29.
18. Erdener Kaynak, *op cit.*, p.28.
19. Ibid.
20. Conrad M. Arensberg *et al* . Introducing Social Change: A Manual for Community Development. 2nd ed. (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1971), p.48.
21. Samih K. Farsoun. Family Structure and Society in Modern Lebanon in Peoples and Cultures of the Middle East, 2 Vols., ed. Louise E. Sweet (Garden City, New York: Doubleday Natural History Press 1970), 2:270.
22. Ibrahim Wade Ata, *op cit.*, p.8.
23. Ibid.
24. Samih K. Farsoun, *op cit.*, p. 270.
25. Tomas quoted by Guillermo S. Edelburg, Management and Its Environment in Argentina in Joseph L. Massie *et al* (Eds), Management in an International Context (New York, Harper & Row, 1972), p.321.
26. Abba Ali and Paul Swiercz, *op cit.*, p.147
27. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 708.
28. See, for example, Ronald Wraith and Edgar Simpkins, Corruption in Developing Countries (New York: W.W. Norton 1964).
29. Peter Nehemkis "Business Payoffs Abroad: Rhetoric and Reality". Californian Management Review 18 (Winter 1975), p.6.

30. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p.708.
31. Peter Nehemkis, *op cit.*, p.7.
32. Ibid., p.8.
33. Hadith consists of the acts and sayings of Prophet Muhammad and early Islam.
34. Changiz Pezeshkpur "Challenge to Management in the Arab World". Business Horizons (August 1978), p.54.
35. Ibid.
36. Ibid.
37. Geza Lauter. Environmental Constraints Impeding Managerial Performance in Developing Countries. Management International Review 10 (1970), pp. 2-3, 45-52.
38. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.72.
39. Ibid., p.73.
40. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p.35.
41. Khalil Nakhleh and Zureik The Sociology of the Palestinians. (London: Croom Helm Ltd. 1980), p. 167-170.
42. Ibid.
43. Paul Harper. Labouring Under Oppression: Poles and Palestinians. (London: Council for the Advancement of Arab-British Understanding) p.22.
44. The Guardian, Friday, February 16, 1990.
45. Rabi S. Bhagat *et al* . Role of Subjective Culture in Organisations: A Review and Directions for Future Research. Journal of Applied Psychology Monography 67 (October 1982): 653-685.

CHAPTER 13

MANAGERS ATTITUDES AND CHANGE

13.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter we examined West Bank managers approach to decision making. The researcher also discussed and evaluated the main aspects of West Bank managers interpersonal styles. Such discussion was helpful in gaining an accurate picture of the West Bank wider environment which seems to have a direct bearing on management and its practice.

The main purpose of this chapter, however, will be: first, to examine West Bank managers attitudes towards their jobs, time, and life insurance; second, to examine the attitudes of West Bank managers toward females working as managers, females working as employees, more freedom and independence from customs and traditions, and toward an increase in business automation and technology and thirdly, to examine the main variables that might have an effect on managers attitudes.

13.2 Definitions of Attitudes and Other Related Concepts

For any researcher and in order to examine the attitude of respondents, it is imperative that the meanings of an attitude and other related concepts are reviewed. Such concepts include values, beliefs, opinions and ideology.

What is an attitude? Robbins (1988) has defined attitudes as evaluative statements either favourable or unfavourable concerning objects, people, or events. They reflect how one feels about something. For example, when one says "I like my job" he is expressing his attitude to work.⁽¹⁾

Kolasa has defined an attitude as “a predisposition to react positively or negatively, to a person, place or circumstances”. It is therefore a tendency to respond and can be considered a “leaning in one direction or another There are two main elements in an attitude, the predisposition and the direction of that predisposition.”(2)

How does an attitude differ from other concepts such as values, beliefs, opinions and ideology? Before proceeding on to the definition of these various aspects it is worth mentioning that the way any researcher defines a value is very much influenced by his/her background, knowledge, and purpose of research. For example, Rokeach (1973) has defined a value as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence”.(3) Kluckhohn, however, defined a value as “a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action”. It should be emphasised that effective (desirable), cognitive (conception), and conative (selection) elements are all essential to the notion of value. This definition takes culture, group, and the individual's relation to culture and place in his group as primary points of departure.(4)

On the other hand, Davis, 1969, has defined values as “sets of interrelated ideas, concepts and principles to which individuals, groups, and societies attach strong sentiments. They are abstract, general orientations that guide human behaviour.”(5) Other similar definitions of values were also given by Scott (6) and Jacob *et al* (7).

From all these definitions we can conclude that values can be derived from one's own experience. from friendship groups, parents, teachers, lecturers, and even from reading books and magazines. Values can also be acquired from religion, radio, television and from the culture as a whole.

A belief, on the other hand, is defined as "inferences made by an observer about underlying state of expectancy".⁽⁸⁾ Also in another definition it was pointed out that:

"a belief is any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase *I believe that*". The content of a belief may describe the object of belief as true or false; correct or incorrect; evaluate it as good or bad; or advocate a certain course of action or a certain state of existence as desirable or undesirable. The first kind of belief may be called a descriptive or existential belief (I believe that the sun rises in the East). The second kind of belief may be called an evaluative belief (I believe this ice cream is good) and the third kind may be called a prescriptive or exhortatory belief (I believe it is desirable that children should obey their parents). Whether or not the content of a belief is to describe, evaluate or exhort, all beliefs are predispositions to action, and an attitude is thus a set of interrelated predispositions to action organised around an object or situation."⁽⁹⁾

An opinion, however, is defined as "a verbal expression of some belief, attitude or value".⁽¹⁰⁾ Kolasa (1969) has defined an opinion as "the expression of one's judgement of a particular set of facts, an evaluation of

the circumstances to him (*sic*). (11) While an ideology is defined as “an organisation of beliefs and an ideology is defined as “an organisation of beliefs and attitudes - religious, political or philosophical in nature - that is more or less institutionalised or shared with others, deriving from external authority”.(12) Kluckhohn defined ideology by pointing out that:

“ideology always refers to a system of ideas, but the system is sometimes constructed to be based on the special interests of some segmental or distributive minority within the society, sometimes upon a supernatural revelation, sometimes upon any non-empirical, non-scientific norm. In general, ideology has today a somewhat pejorative sense which does not attach to value. It might legitimately be argued that ideologies determine the choice between alternative paths of action, which are equally compatible with the underlying values”.(13)

This concludes the discussion of the various definitions of attitudes and other related concepts. It is hoped that a review of such definitions will help the reader to better conceptualise the remaining analysis of this survey.

13.3 Managers Attitudes Towards Own Jobs

This section is dedicated to examining the various attitudes of managers toward their own jobs. To accomplish such an objective every manager in the survey was asked to respond to the question “Please tick the one statement that most fully represents your attitude and feeling about your job?”. Every manager was then provided with four alternative statements:

- a. A dominant factor in my life and a primary source of satisfaction.
- b. A distinctly interesting and important part of my life.
- c. An activity separate from the rest of my life and one which must not

be allowed to dominate.

- d. A source of demand and pressure that affects other activities.

Table 13.1 shows that almost 60 per cent of the managers have chosen alternative B which describes the job as being distinctly interesting and important part of the manager's life. The researcher attributes such finding to managers satisfaction as a result of internal motivation where it was found that 59.9 per cent of the managers have attended training programmes, and as a direct result of the high level of education attained by the managers and because of their fields of study. It was found that 67.8 per cent of the total managers in the survey completed University education, with 31.1 per cent specialising in business and commerce. The researcher believes that such feeling of satisfaction stems from the type of ownership and also came about as a result of the scarcity of managerial jobs in the area. Previous findings in the study indicate that 35 per cent of the managers interviewed are managers of their own firms. The other findings in Table 13.1 also show that 18.6 per cent of the managers view their jobs as being a dominant factor in their lives and a primary source of satisfaction.

This type of attitude can be attributed to managers working beyond their capacities. Managers who are running their own firms might fall in this category. This argument is supported by the views of some managers among them Muhammad Abu Hashim, manager and owner of the Holy Land Engineering and Construction Plant in Hebron, who told the researcher about having wild dreams and nightmares about his work.. Another manager Hamdi Duais, who runs the Arab Textile Company in Hebron. Duais pointed out that "he sees his job as more important than his own self".

**Table 13.1 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of
Managers Attitudes Towards Their Present Jobs**
N = 177

Attitude	Frequency	Percentage
A dominant factor in my life and a primary source of satisfaction	33	18.6
A distinctly interesting and important part of my life	106	59.9
An activity separate from the rest of my life and one which must not be allowed to dominate	27	15.3
A source of demand and pressure that affects other activities	11	6.2
TOTAL	177	100

Interestingly, only 15.3 per cent of the managers seemed to be able to separate work affairs from their personal lives. These managers are believed to be the least planners. They leave their obsessions at work and do not carry their work home with them. The researcher believes that these managers are mainly found in the public sector.

The remaining managers 6.2 per cent, think of their jobs as being a constant source of demand and pressure which affects other activities. These managers are thought to be those who work the longest hours. The findings indicate that 44.6 per cent of the managers work over 60 hours per week, while only 29.9 per cent work between 45-59 hours a week, and 25.5 per cent work not more than 44 hours weekly. The mean working hours is 55.7. See Table 13.2.

The pressure of work was evident in the response of Alis Yakoub, a female manager of Bethlehem Artificial Limbs Factory who pointed out that work pressure always made her nervous and tense in her home.

Table 13.2 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Weekly Working Hours
N = 177

Working Hours	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 30 hours	4	2.3
30 - 44 hours	41	23.2
45 - 59 hours	53	29.9
60 hours and more	79	44.6
TOTAL	177	100

Mean = 55.7 hours Std. Dev.: 16.7

The researcher believes that all managers who perceive their jobs as being a source of demand and pressure are very much affected by the sensitive positions they hold. They are believed to be the managers with heavy planning duties and who are required to make a lot of communication either downward, upward (public administrators) or externally. An example of those managers would be municipal mayors. For example, Hanna Al-Atrash, Mayor of Beit Sahour Municipality complained to the researcher of citizens coming to his home to discuss business matter very early in the morning and very late at night.

These are the main findings resulting from the analysis. The researcher believes that these findings might reflect the genuine feeling of managers. As a result subsequent findings indicate that 46.3 per cent of the managers believe that their jobs give them great opportunities to use their full capacity and 33.9 per cent believe that their jobs allow them to practice their abilities

only to some extent, while 11.9 per cent believe that their jobs provide them with opportunities to use their abilities to the full. See Table 13.3.

Table 13.3 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Use of Abilities.
N = 177

Extent Ability Used	Frequency	Percentage
Completely	21	11.9
To a great extent	82	46.3
To some extent	60	33.9
To a minor extent	12	6.8
Not at all	2	1.1
TOTAL	117	100.0

13.4 Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes

This part of the chapter will be dedicated to the examination of various variables that might have a direct contribution to the variation in managers personal attitudes towards their work. The variables include the size of the organisation, type of ownership, managers age, and education.

13.4.1 Organisation Size and Managers Job Attitude

It is believed that the size of organisation might contribute significantly to the variation of managers job attitudes. To test the degree of influence, statistically, all organisations in the survey were classified into three size groups. Small (less than 10 employees), medium (10-44 employees) and large (50 employees and more). This type of classification applies to West Bank businesses where it was found that the industrial sector of the West Bank and Gaza consists mainly of small and medium sized workshops, 92.3 per cent of which employ between one and 9 workers.⁽¹⁴⁾

Table 13.4 displays the findings. From these it is apparent that the size of organisation contributes to the variation in managers attitudes since the Chi-square value is 11.6 with 6 degrees of freedom at 0.07 level of significance.

Table 13.4 Managers Attitudes by Size of Organisation (Percentage)

N = 177

Attitude Organisation Size	Job as a Dominant Factor in my Life and Primary Source of Satisfaction	A Distinctly Interesting and Important Part of my Life	An Activity Separate from Rest of Life and Which must not be Allowed to Dominate	A Source of Demand and Pressure That Affects Other Activities
Small	15.0	55.0	27.5	2.5
Medium	15.6	63.6	15.6	5.2
Large	25.0	58.3	6.7	10.0
TOTAL	18.6	59.9	15.3	6.3
$X^2 = 11.6$ $df = 6$ $sig. = 0.07$ Cramer's V = 0.18				

Looking at Table 13.4, one notices that out of 59.9 per cent of the managers who see their jobs as being distinctly interesting, the highest percentage, 63.6 is found in the responses of managers working in medium size organisations. The researcher believes that such finding is very normal since medium size organisations have a reasonable number of employees, they are not too big neither too small. They are balanced. Another reason for such finding is that large organisations are sometimes more complicated. Therefore, they are hard to manage. Drucker, has pointed out that the bigger the organisation becomes, the more complicated the management will become. To support such argument, let us take the elephant example. As the elephant grows bigger and bigger its trunk grows as well so as to withstand the increasing weight, or otherwise the elephant will not be able to stand on its legs.

Managers of small organisations are not overburdened with obligations, and are experiencing a medium size span of supervision or control. Therefore, managers of medium size organisations have maintained a good balance between small and large organisations and are thus provided with advantages not enjoyed by managers of other sizes or organisation.

Another interesting finding is in the responses of managers to the third alternative statement where the job was perceived as being something separate from the manager's personal life. As we look at the table we will find that the percentage decreases as the size of organisation increases. This indicates that the bigger the organisation, the less capable the manager is in separating business affairs from his personal life.

Again if we look at the table we will notice that the pressure on managers increases as the size of the organisation increases. It was found that 10 per cent out of 6.3 per cent of the managers are found in large organisations as compared with only 2.5 per cent of managers in small size organisations.

To sum up the findings we can say that the attitude of managers varies with the size of organisation in which they work.

13.4.2 Business Ownership and Job Attitude

One might well argue that the type of ownership might have a direct contribution to the variations in the personal attitudes of managers to their work. The findings, however, as shown in Table 13.5 indicate that there is no statistical significance between the type of ownership and the kind of attitude perceived by managers since the Chi-square value is 3.98 with 3

degrees of freedom at 0.26 level of significance. See Table 13.5

Table 13.5 Ownership by Job Attitude (percentage)

Type of Attitude	A Dominant Factor in my Life and Primary Source of Satisfaction	A Distinctly Interesting and Important Part of Life	An Activity Separate from Rest of Life and Which must not be Allowed to Dominate	A Source of Demand and Pressure That Affects Other Activities
Ownership				
Private	20.8	63.6	13.0	2.6
Public	17.0	57.0	17.0	9.0
TOTAL	18.6	59.9	15.3	6.2

$X^2 = 3.98$ $df = 3$ $sig. = 0.26$ Cramer's $V = 0.15$

13.4.3 Managers Education and Job Attitude

This section will be dedicated to examining the degree of association between the managers level of education and job attitude. To do this statistically all managers were divided into two groups with regard to their educational level. Less educated (managers with 12 years of high school and less) and highly educated (managers with college and university

Table 13.6 Managers Education by Job Attitude (percentage)

Job Attitude	A Dominant Factor in my Life and Primary Source of Satisfaction	A Distinctly Interesting and Important Part of Life	An Activity Separate from Rest of Life and Which must not be Allowed to Dominate	A Source of Demand and Pressure That Affects Other Activities
Education-level				
Less educated	25.0	61.4	6.8	6.8
Highly educated	16.5	59.4	18.0	6.0
TOTAL	18.6	59.9	15.3	6.2

$X^2 = 4.6$ $df = 3$ $sig. = 0.26$ Cramer's $V = 0.15$

education). The results show that the educational level of managers has no statistical significance to the variation in their job attitudes since the Chi-square value is 4.6 with 3 degrees of freedom at 0.26 per cent level of significance. See Table 13.6.

13.4.4 Managers Age and Job Attitude

This part of the chapter will focus on the influence of the manager's age on his/her job attitude. To examine the degree of influence, all managers in the survey were divided into three age groups. Young (less than 30 years old), middle aged (30-44 years) and old (45 years and over). Using the SPSSx statistical technique it was found that there is no association between the age of a manager and his/her job attitude since the Chi-square value is 2.5 with 6 degrees of freedom at 0.86 level of significance. See Table 13.7.

Table 13.7 Managers Age and Job Attitude (percentage)

N = 177

Job Attitude/ Managers Age	A Dominant Factor in my Life and Primary Source of Satisfaction	A Distinctly Interesting and Import- ant Part of Life	An Activity Separate from Rest of Life and Which must not be Allowed to Dominate	A Source of Demand and Pressure That Affects Other Activities
Young	20.0	64.0	16.0	-
Middle	15.5	62.1	15.5	6.9
Old	20.2	57.4	14.9	7.4
TOTAL	18.6	59.9	15.3	6.2
$X^2 = 2.5$ $df = 6$ $sig. = 0.86$ Cramer's V = 0.084				

This concludes our discussion of the main variables which were thought to have a significant contribution to the variation in managers attitudes. Interestingly, among all the variables, it was found that only the size of the

organisation had a significant contribution to the variation in managers attitudes toward their jobs. The statistical findings indicate that managers of large organisations are the ones who suffer most from work pressures and demands. The findings also indicated that managers of large organisations are least capable of separating business affairs from their personal lives. From the findings it was apparent that the percentage of managers responses to the job as being a dominant factor in their lives increases with the increase in the size of organisation.

13.5 Managers Attitude Toward Time

As we have seen in previous chapters, the low value placed on time was cited by West Bank managers as one of the main most frequently mentioned pressures. Due to the importance of such a concept a special section of this chapter will be dedicated to examining the attitudes of managers to such an important cultural theme.

Every manager participating in the survey was asked to respond to a single question "Which of the following statements would best describe your attitude towards time?" Every manager was then provided with four alternative statements. In order to make sure that no important opinion would be missed all managers were provided with a fifth answer which said "Other" where every manager was asked to provide his own answer if none of the statements provided represented his attitude.

Table 13.8 displays the findings. What is so interesting is that 85.3 per cent of the managers described the time value as very valuable. To them time is gold. The importance of time was best expressed by the mottos which were

displayed in many firms. These mottos were written in huge Arabic letters. They were quoted verbatim by the researcher and were translated into English. Some of them said "Time is like a double-edged sword, it could either benefit or harm you" and "The value of time stems from the value of responsibilities" and also "Do not procrastinate today's work until tomorrow". Other mottos said "Time is more precious than gold. Gold can be sold and bought while time cannot" and "Time is very valuable, treat it like you treat any other asset in the organisation".

There is no doubt that time was valued very highly by West Bank managers. The researcher believes that these findings are not contrary to our expectations. The researcher attributes such high value to several factors:

- a. Managers high level of education. Unlike the traditional people who place low value on time, these managers have been educated in foreign and European culture, and therefore realise the importance of time in these various cultures.
- b. Managers training. Many of these managers were trained in Europe, the United States and Israel. Therefore they became more exposed to Western practice and attitudes.
- c. Direct contact with the Jewish people. As already mentioned, the Palestinians have learned many things from the occupiers. It is believed that the Jewish people place a high value on time and organising. This generalisation came about as a direct observation by the researcher and from his past experience in working with Jewish people and in Jewish firms. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the placement of high value on time is viewed by some Palestinians as one way of defying and antagonising the Israelis. Such feeling stems from

their response to a statement mentioned by Moshe Dayan, deceased Israeli Defence Minister, who once commented: "We as Jews should give consideration to the Arabs only after we see them being able to stand in a queue in order to get on a bus....".

Looking at Table 13.8 we will also notice that 11.3 per cent of the managers view time as valuable as money. These findings indicate that almost 97 per cent of the managers have an important view of the time concept. To them time is so precious. Time is as valuable as gold and money. Of the remaining managers, two have associated time with work. They stated that "Lost time is lost work" and two managers pointed out that "Life is time" while the remaining managers have a different view of time. They stated that "time is important only when working".

Table 13.8 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Managers Attitudes Towards Time.
N = 177

Attitude	Frequency	Percentage
Time is very valuable	151	85.3
Time is valuable	20	11.3
Others	6	3.4
TOTAL	177	100.0

To summarise these findings, the researcher concludes that West Bank managers share high appreciation for time. To them time is very valuable as gold and money. This finding is corroborated by Muna (1980) who found that any generalisation about the Arab executives as being fatalistic will be academically irresponsible and misleading. Muna indicated that in general the Arab executives are far from being fatalistic: they are future-oriented,

rational in their planning and deliberation, and they attempt to control and prevent adverse future events.⁽¹⁵⁾

13.5.1 Reasons for Being Late for Work

To help the researcher, and in order to make sure that the West Bank managers were not over-reacting to the pressure “low value of time”, every manager was asked to respond to the question “Have you ever been late for work in the past 12 months?”. Every manager was then asked to give a “YES” or “NO” answer. Those who responded with “YES” were then asked “Why were you late for work?”. The managers were then provided with several alternatives. In order to make sure that none of the important reasons would be missed all reasons ended with one open ended answer which was “Other.....specify”. Tables 13.9 and 13.10 report the findings. Table 13.9 indicates that only 89 managers, 50.3 per cent have admitted to being late in the past 12 months.⁽¹⁶⁾ Interestingly, the results in Table 13.10 indicate that almost 45 per cent of the 89 managers have mentioned the occupiers practices as their main reason for being late for work. Many of these managers cited the examples of being held up at military checkpoints while on their way to work. Some of them complained

**Table 13.9 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of
Managers Who Have Been Late for Work in the
Past 12 months
N = 177**

Been Late for Work During the past 13 months.	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	89	50.3
No	88	49.7
TOTAL	177	100.0

of collective curfews being imposed on their cities, towns and neighbourhoods, while some were late because of soldiers confiscation of their military identity cards. (17) Others were late because they were summoned to the local Israeli military governor in the area. The results in Table 13.10 also show that 16.9 per cent of the managers were late because of social activities such as home visits by friends, relatives and clients and because of the death or marriage of some relatives and friends where they had to be present. 14.6 per cent were late because of family matters, such a member of the family being sick or needing to go to hospital, or because of other matters related to the family such as the buying of food and other household goods. It is important to point out here that the husband has the main responsibility for the whole family. The husband is still regarded as the breadwinner for the family.

Of the remaining managers 13.5 per cent were late because of personal matters such as sickness, travelling abroad mainly to Jordan in order to obtain a Jordanian passport or to renew one which had expired. Another 6.7 per cent of managers were late because of transportation problems. It is worth mentioning that public transportation in the West Bank is inefficient, and many of the buses and taxis run according to the load of passengers and not on the hour. The findings indicate that only 25.4 per cent of the total managers in the survey do not drive to work. These managers however, depend on lifts provided by working colleagues, and friends, and on transport provided by employers. The remaining managers attributed their lateness to work related matters such as the representation of their business in the community, or travelling abroad for business related matters in which managers were late and stayed beyond the allowed period for the visit. What is so interesting is the reason which was cited by one administrator of a public firm in Beit-Jala near Bethlehem who commented:

“.....Many times I was deliberately late for work in order to make up for the unpaid overtime hours”.

In brief, these findings indicate that West Bank managers generally are prompt and punctual. Almost half of the managers who were late for work in the past 12 months were late because of external pressures and 3.4 per cent were made late because of work related activities. Only 45 per cent of the managers who were late attributed the causes to social, personal and family matters.

Table 13.10 Frequency and Percentage of Managers Responses to the Reasons for being Late for Work

Reason	Percentage
Occupiers practice and behaviour	44.9
Social activities	16.9
Family matters	14.6
Personal matters	13.5
Transport	6.7
Work related matters	3.4
TOTAL	100.0

13.6 Managers Attitudes Towards Life Insurance

One of the most widespread beliefs about the Arabs is that they are fatalistic. The main reason for such belief is attributed to Islam and its teachings. However, it is not the researcher's intention here to engage in a discussion about fatalism with regard to the various religions. Instead, the researcher presents the findings of this study and in the light of these one can conclude whether or not the Arabs are fatalistic.

To see if the managers carry life insurance or not every manager was asked a direct question by the researcher "Do you currently carry life insurance?". They were then provided with a "YES" or "NO" alternative. Table 13.11 shows that only 50 managers 28.2 per cent carry life insurance while 71.8 per cent did not. Unlike the findings of Muna (1980) where he indicated that only 44 per cent of the Arab executives interviewed did not have life insurance. For a comparison of the findings see Table 13.13.

**Table 13.11 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of
Managers Responses to Life Insurance**
N = 177

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes - carry life insurance	50	28.2
No - do not carry life insurance	127	71.8
TOTAL	177	100.0

13.6.1 Reasons for not Carrying Life Insurance Policy

All the managers who did not carry life insurance attributed the reasons which prevented them from doing so to: religious 40.2 per cent; financial benefits are not rewarding 18.0 per cent; personal or family wealth 15.0 per cent; negligence 13.4 per cent; financial difficulties 7.9 per cent; and due to the country's social security system and work pensions 5.5 per cent. (See Table 13.12).

The findings in Table 13.12 indicate that 40.2 per cent of the 127 managers who did not carry life insurance did not do so because of religious reasons. The majority of these managers were very hasty to cite the Quranic verse "Nothing shall happen to us except that which God ordained for us". (18)

Table 13.12 Percentage Distribution of Managers Responses to the Reasons for not Carrying Life Insurance Policy

Reason	Percentage
Religious	40.2
Financial benefits are not rewarding	18.0
Personal or family wealth	15.0
Negligence	13.4
Financial difficulties	7.9
Country social security system and work pensions scheme is adequate	5.5
TOTAL	100.0

This Quranic verse was clearly cited by Jawdat Natsheh, manager of Natsheh and Duais bus company, Hamdi Duais, manager of Arab Textile Company, Mahmoud Obedo, manager and owner of Pama Shoe Factory, and Kalid Tamimi, manager of Al-Nafis Laboratories. Interestingly the religious reason was the main obstacle that prevented even a Christian manager from carrying life insurance. Dawood, manager of the House of Hope, Bethlehem commented:

“My life is in the possession of God the creator. Therefore, there is no need to carry life insurance”.

As far as Islam is concerned, not all types of insurance are forbidden. On the contrary, Islam sees in insurance a “participation in risk”. Therefore, types of insurance such as fire, health, accident are not forbidden. They are widely practiced even in strictly religious countries like Saudi Arabia. The only type of insurance which is not allowed in Islam is life insurance. In Islam a person’s life is in the hand of God. A person can die whenever the Lord wants him to. Death is regarded as something inevitable, therefore,

there is no need to insure one's life. As Jawdat Natsheh, a very well known business man in Hebron, has commented:

“.....I will give you all the money you ask for if you can make me live longer than the Lord wants me to.”

What is interesting is that 28.2 per cent of the total managers carry life insurance policies even though they know it is against Islam. The researcher believes that these managers like many other Moslem managers who receives interests on their money in the banks, are business minded and not religious oriented. To them this kind of practice might be considered something personal which should not be prevented by others.

Looking at Table 13.12 we will also find that some of the reasons for not carrying life insurance cited by the managers includes the inadequate financial benefits, 18 per cent. The manager of Al-Qamar Towel Factory, Aida Refugee Camp near Bethlehem, commented:

“If I put the same money into the bank I will get more benefits in the long run, taking into consideration the continued devaluation in the Jordanian currency and also that the cost of insurance (premium) increases with the increase in the age of the insured person”.

Some of the managers who cited the inadequate financial rewards as their reason found the life insurance to be financially ineffective. These managers had carried out a cost benefit analysis and therefore believe that the cost of the premium is higher than the benefits.

Of the remaining managers 15 per cent did not carry life insurance because

Table 13.13 Main Reasons for Not Carrying Life Insurance Policies. Comparison between Muna (1980) findings and Abuznaid (present study).

	Do not Carry Life Insurance Policy %	Reasons %						Do Not believe in its use- fulness and financial benefits	Total %
		Religious	Individual and family wealth and financial security	Countries social security system and their company pensions and benefit plans are very generous and adequate	Financial difficulties	Negligence	Financial benefits are not rewarding		
Muna (The Arab Executive)	(44.0)	-	69.6	17.4	-	-	-	13.0	100.0
Abuznaid (The present study)	(71.8)	40.2	15.0	5.5	7.9	13.4	18.0	-	100.0

Source: Data derived from Farid Muna, The Arab Executive, 1980 p.98, and author's survey.

of their personal or family wealth. 13.4 per cent did not have life insurance due to negligence. These managers pointed out that they never thought of it, some of them even mentioned that they did not have the time to go to find a dependable and respectable insurance company, and 7.9 per cent did not have life insurance only because of financial difficulties. These managers pointed out that they are unable to meet the cost of insurance, taking into consideration that the cost increases with age, and the benefits increase with the increase in the premium cost. The remaining 5.5 per cent of the managers cited the country's social security system as well as pension plans provided by their employers as their only reason. The researcher believes that the majority of these managers are residents of Jerusalem which was formally annexed to the State of Israel immediately after 1967. In Jerusalem, all residents, however, enjoy various financial schemes which are not enjoyed by the rest of the population of the West Bank.

To conclude the discussion of insurance, the researcher sees in the findings that West Bank managers do carry life insurance. The findings indicate that 28.2 per cent of the total managers already carry life insurance policies. Of the remaining managers only 40 per cent did not have life insurance because of religious reasons.

13.7 Managers Attitudes Towards Change

The main purpose of this section is twofold: First, it aims to examine the attitudes of West Bank managers towards the following changes:

1. Socio-cultural Change

- Managers attitudes toward females working as managers
- Managers attitudes toward females working as labourers

- Managers attitudes toward the need for more freedom from customs and traditions

2. Technological Change

- Managers attitudes toward the increase in business technology and automation.

Second, it aims to examine the various variables that might have a direct impact on the variations in managers attitudes. Such variables include managers age and education.

13.7.1 The Instrument Used for Measurement

In order to measure the attitudes of managers in all cited aspects it is necessary to point out that a four point scale of measurement is used. The scale ranged from strongly in favour to strongly oppose. Each of the managers was given the statement and then was asked to choose the answer which reflects his opinion most closely. See questionnaire.

13.8 Managers Attitudes Towards Socio-Cultural Change

Some of the changes which will be examined under this heading include the attitudes of managers toward females working as managers, toward females working as labourers (employees), and towards the change in customs and traditions. Each of these aspects will be discussed and evaluated.

13.8.1 Managers Attitudes Towards Females Working as Managers

One of the main characteristics of an Arab society is that it is regarded as a folk type of culture where status is ascribed by such factors as sex, age, or family name.⁽¹⁹⁾ Today, in most Arab societies childbearing is still regarded as the main competitor to women entering the labour market. In a traditional Moslem Arab society, womens' whole universe is confined to the

family.⁽²⁰⁾ The man alone is entitled to encounter the outside world. In light of all these challenges, the researcher found it imperative to examine the attitudes of West Bank Managers toward womens' employment.

What is the attitude of West Bank Managers towards females working as managers?

The findings in Table 13.14 indicate that West Bank managers are pro women holding managerial positions. The results indicate that almost 66 per cent of the managers are in favour of females being employed in higher managerial levels, of whom 9.6 per cent strongly favour, while 55.9 per cent only favour such change. The mean score is 2.34 which means that the average managers agree with such change.

One might ask why such a high response? The researcher attributes such positive attitude to several factors:

- a. The higher educational level of managers where it was found that over 67 per cent hold university degrees. Therefore managers education is believed to have contributed positively to the change in managers attitudes towards women.
- b. The higher educational level of Palestinian women. In a study carried out by Kubrusi (1986) it was found that 40 per cent of university students in the West Bank and Gaza are women.⁽²¹⁾ Nakhleh (1980) pointed out that the number of female university graduates among Palestinians is higher than that among other Arabs.⁽²²⁾ After 1948 Palestinians who were dispersed throughout the world appear to have placed a high premium on education. The

stress on education was reflected in the female population, as the number of educated girls increased substantially as a result of parents encouraging their daughters to go to school and as a result of Palestinian perception of education as a permanent portable commodity that could be put to use wherever one settled. The loss of property in Palestine has enhanced the Palestinians feelings that education is a better investment.

- c. Economic Necessity. The economic needs of the Palestinians under occupation has produced some changes in Palestinian attitudes towards womens' employment.
- d. Current Political Situation. The researcher believes that the occupation has pushed the Palestinian women to be politically active, and as a result, women today play a big role in the struggle against the occupation. Palestinian women have entered local unions and associations on equal footing with men. (See Chapters 1 and 14) The researcher believes that such activities carried out by women have lead to a change in mens' attitude toward the role of women in general. Interestingly, many women in the West Bank are becoming independent as a result of the arrest of their husbands. Such action leaves them with no choice but to look after the house, the children and to be a temporary bread winner.

As for the 34.4 per cent of managers who are against women being employed as managers the researcher believes that their main opposition came about as a result of:

- (i) ill perception of womens' role - many of the managers who were against females working as managers believe that the role of women is only confined to the home. They believe that womens' role is to look after the children and the home.

Table 13.14 Percentage Distribution of West Bank Managers Attitude Towards Socio-Cultural and Technological Change

Change	Percentage				Mean* \bar{X}	Rank
	Strongly Favour	Favour	Oppose	Strongly Oppose		
<u>Socio Cultural</u>						
Females working as managers	9.6	55.9	25.4	9.0	2.34	(4)
Females working as labourers	20.9	68.4	7.3	3.4	1.93	(3)
Freedom and independence from customs and traditions	38.4	46.3	10.7	4.5	1.81	(2)
<u>Technological</u>						
An increase in business automation and technology	72.3	26.0	1.7	-	1.29	(1)

Scale used: 1 = strongly favour 2 = favour 3 = oppose 4 = strongly oppose

* The lower the mean (\bar{X}) the more favourable the manager with the change.

- (ii) Womens' work and its impact on fertility. As already mentioned Arabs in general have rather large families. Such preference (large families) stems from the Islamic beliefs and from the wider culture. Therefore these managers still regard employment as the main competitor to childbearing.
- (iii) The importance of honour. To many Palestinians the family reputation is placed above economic need.⁽²³⁾ Many Arabs believe that women entering the workforce might lead to deviation from the social norms, therefore, damaging the reputation of the aggregate hamula, extended family, which is considered to be one of the significant elements in Palestinian society.⁽²⁴⁾ And as the Hadith says "When a man and a woman (who are not married to each other) meet in privacy the devil

will be their third". (25)

(iv) Religious reasons. Palestine is considered to be a predominantly Muslim culture despite the sizeable Christian minority. Therefore, the Palestinian culture is influenced by Islamic teachings and religious ideas. Islamic teachings through religious laws, sharia, has described the role of wife as the one that is below that of the husband. This is due to the Quranic verse which was cited by some managers. The verse says:

"Men are the protectors and maintainers of women, because Allah has given the one more (strength) than the other, and because they support them from their means. Therefore the righteous women are devoutly obedient and guard in his (the husband's) absence what Allah would have them guard". (26)

Many of the managers who were against women working as managers or even against women's employment in general cited the following Hadiths and sayings of the prophet Muhammed. The Hadith says "Failure will be the lot of those who select a woman as their leader", (27) This restriction, or exemption from an obligation, corresponds on a social level, to the same pattern of authority that exists in the family setting i.e. man enjoys additional authority as a compensation for his additional responsibilities, whereas a woman enjoys certain exemptions as compensation for her having to submit to a man's authority. (28)

In brief, the data presented indicates that Palestinian managers in general are pro women working as managers. The findings indicate that 65.5 per cent of the managers are in favour of the employment of women as managers

with the majority 55.9 per cent only in favour of such change. See Chapter ten for more details as to the number of female managers employed.

13.8.2 Managers Attitudes Towards Women Working as Employees

The findings in Table 13.14 show that Palestinian managers are more tolerant to the change in women's role of being employed as labourers (regular employees). The results indicate that 89.3 per cent of the managers are pro women working as employees (non-managers) of whom 20.9 per cent only are strongly in favour of such change. The findings in Table 13.13 show that only 10.7 per cent of the managers are against such change. The findings indicate that on average, Palestinian managers are more in favour of women being employed as labourers than managers. This finding is supported by the responses of many managers like Nadir Sunukrut, Manager of Revoli Hotel in Jerusalem who commented: ".....unfortunately, people here by the nature of their environment are more reluctant to accept any order given to them by females".

The researcher believes that some of these changes are already taking place. Many professions in the West Bank are even regarded as 'feminist' professions. They include employment as nurses, secretaries, typists and social workers. Some of the females are even self employed as hairdressers, seamstresses or pharmacists.⁽²⁹⁾

Despite all this gradual change, the majority of Palestinian parents would rather be poor and respectable than rich and dishonourable. As a result many Palestinian parents will not allow their daughters to work as singers or dancers. Nakhleh (1980) found that Palestinians who immigrated from Palestine to Canada are adamantly opposed to their women being employed

as waitresses.⁽³⁰⁾ The researcher believes that cultural themes such as honour and reputation are still regarded by many Palestinians as the major determinants in defining female professions.

Interestingly, the bias against females employment is not only confined to the Arab world. The Daily Mail 1990 reported that women in the UK have to be more talented than men to reach the same heights in business. The report says that despite the fact that companies are beginning to recognise the executive potential for women, Britain is still under-using almost half of its available talent because of the profoundly unequal status of women. Outright sexual harassment, recruitment through the "old boys" network and discrimination against pregnancy, are among the major hurdles. ⁽³¹⁾

13.8.3 Managers Attitudes Towards Prevailing Customs and Traditions

Table 13.13 shows that of the majority of Palestinian managers interviewed, 84.7 per cent were thirsty for change in the prevailing customs and traditions. Only 15.2 per cent were not in favour of any change in any of the customs and traditions. The mean is 1.81 which means that managers responses lean towards only favouring such change. The burden of customs and traditions was very evident in managers responses to the various socio-cultural pressures which had been discussed in previous chapters. Some of the customs and traditions which have been cited most frequently and one which managers would rather gain more independence and freedom from include:

- the killing because of honour related matters. This practice was criticised by almost all administrators of social affairs and community services offices throughout the West Bank. For more information on the concept of honour, refer to chapter seven.

- Female companionship when visiting doctors (chaperone). Many hospital and clinic administrators complained of the inconvenience caused by the husbands, relatives and other females who accompany female patients during their visits to medical organisations. The researcher believes that such companionship is considered by Palestinians as necessary for honour related matters.
- Palestinian rejection to the establishment of special homes for girls who have been raped, and for elderly people other than the handicapped. The researcher believes that Palestinians object to such change because of their cover up for matters related to the concept of honour, and to the Palestinians love for their elders. Palestinian society like any other Arab society is very distinguishable for its respect for the elderly. For any Palestinian, the sending of ones parents to a nursing home is considered by the community as a dishonourable practice and one which should be discouraged.
- The practice of nepotism and mediation. Again, the aspects of nepotism and mediation were fully discussed in the previous chapter.

This concludes our discussion of managers attitudes toward some of the socio-cultural changes. From the findings, it was so apparent that in general, West Bank managers are in favour of womens' employment. The findings also indicated that West Bank Managers are very thirsty for the change of some of the customs and traditions which are widely practiced by the Palestinians of the West Bank

13.9 Technological Change

This section will be dedicated to the discussion of managers attitudes toward

the increase in business automation and technology.

Before proceeding on to the discussion of the various attitudes it is worth mentioning that the term technology refers to “how an organisation transfer its inputs to outputs”.⁽³²⁾ Kreitner has defined technology as the tools and ideas available for extending the natural physical and mental reach of mankind.⁽³³⁾ Every organisation has some kind of technology for converting financial, human and physical resources into products or services.⁽³⁴⁾

13.9.1 Managers Attitudes Towards the Increase in Business Automation and Technology

The findings in Table 13.14 show that West Bank managers are very thirsty for an increase in technology and automation. The results indicate that the vast majority of managers, 98.3 per cent are in favour of technological change and the increase in business automation. The table shows that 72.3 per cent of the managers strongly favour such change. Only 1.7 per cent of the managers interviewed voiced their opposition to any transfer of technology into West Bank business. The mean score is 1.29 which means that the average manager's response is in favour of change and an increase in business automation and technology. Interestingly, managers attitudes ranked the first on the scale which means that out of the various aspects examined, an increase in business technology and automation was the managers first needed change.

The researcher attributes such a high favourable attitude towards change in business automation and technology to the managers need for industrial development and improvements, and to their high educational level which resulted in the adoption of new approaches such as being more capital

intensive than labour intensive.

Despite the managers highly positive attitude toward the introduction of new technologies and machines into businesses, West Bank businesses are still hampered by several obstacles to development:

- (i) problems in importing machines and technologies. Many of the managers interviewed *viz* in the industrial sector have complained of the refusal by the authorities to grant importing permits . For example, the manager of Balsam Medical Company, Ramallah commented:
 “one of our biggest problems is the refusal by the Israeli authorities to grant importing permits for machines ”.
- (ii) Occupation opposition to technological development and to the introduction of machines and equipment in businesses. In a study carried out by Harris *et al* (1988) it was found that the occupiers opposition to automation is the main obstacle to business development.(35)

Many of the managers and administrators interviewed expressed their utmost concern over the occupiers negligence and difficulties placed in the road to development of Palestinian firms and businesses even in the public sector.

In an interview with one administrator of a district post office, the administrator commented:

“.....our main problem in the post office is the lack of cars and

motorcycles which are needed for mail distribution”.

Another administrator of a vocational centre who asked to remain anonymous commented:

“.....unfortunately we have been denied a licence for the introduction of radio and television maintenance programmes. While in Israel, computing, for example, is taught in elementary schools”.

The researcher attributes the Israeli lack of concern for the development of Palestinian businesses to the Israeli fear of competition by Palestinian made products hence Israeli manufacturers depend heavily on the occupied territories for the marketing of their goods and services.

- (iii) Ill perception of automation and technology by some Palestinian businessmen. One administrator in the survey pointed out that an increase in automation will eventually lead to technological displacement (unemployment).
- (iv) The need to maintain Palestinian industry as traditional as possible. This point was made by two managers among them Jalal Tamimi, manager of Tamimi Ceramic Factory, who commented: “The West Bank is very well known for its traditional industries like the making of pure olive oil soap, hand made glass and ceramics, and embroidery. These managers, therefore, believe that an introduction of machines into these industries will be fatal, especially, because these goods are known for being hand made”.

This argument was also supported by another manager of a ceramics factory who commented:

“.....I am against any automation in our industries. Our main asset is that we are running a very traditional industry. Therefore, we should keep it that way”.

The manager went even further to tell the researcher of the Canaan Soap case where a Canaan olive oil soap manufacturer had to sell the machines which he bought for his soap factory. The machines did not work well in the manufacturing of this special type of soap. The machines changed the large square shape and the quality of the soap which was very dry on the outside whilst very mild inside. Therefore the machines had to be sold to another company in Ramallah.

In brief the data we have presented indicate that West Bank managers are eager for technological change and development, yet the main obstacles which appear to be in the way of development are political and cultural.

13.10 Variables Affecting Managers Attitude Toward Change

It is believed that some of the variables such as the age and education of a manager might have a direct association to the variation in a managers attitude towards change. In order to test the degree of association, if any, the Chi-square test was implemented. The findings as shown in Table 13.15 indicate that statistically there is no association between the age and education of managers with regard to their attitudes towards change. See Chi-square and level of significance in Table 13.15.

Table 13.15 Managers Age and Education by Attitude

	Age			Education		
	X ²	d.f.	sig.	X ²	d.f.	sig.
Attitudes toward females working as managers	2.3	6	0.88	3.24	3	0.35
Attitudes toward females working as labourers	4.2	6	0.65	5.9	3	0.11
More freedom and independence from customs and traditions	4.4	6	0.62	1.8	3	0.61
An increase in business automation and technology	2.2	4	0.69	4.18	2	0.12

X² = Chi-square d.f. = Degree of Freedom sig. = Significance

Looking at the results in Table 13.15 we will notice that the influence of education is even more significant than age, yet the overall findings are not statistically significant at any level of significance.

13.11 Summary

This chapter has been very beneficial in highlighting the main definitions of attitude and other related concepts. In this chapter, concepts such as values, beliefs, opinions, and ideology were all examined and discussed.

The chapter has also examined the attitudes of West Bank managers toward their own jobs, life insurance and time. From the findings it was concluded that 28.2 per cent of West Bank managers carry life insurance. Of the remaining managers only 40.2 per cent do not carry life insurance because

of religious reasons. The findings also indicated that West Bank managers share very high appreciation for the value of time.

The attitudes of West Bank managers towards change were also presented in this chapter. From the findings it was clear that West Bank managers are eager for an increase in business automation and technology. The majority of managers were also in favour of females working as managers and labourers. They were also in favour of more freedom and independence from the prevailing customs and traditions.

The present chapter has dedicated special sections to the examination of the main variables which are thought to have a direct impact on the variations in managers attitudes towards their own jobs and change. The statistical findings indicated that only the size of organisation had a significant contribution to the variation in managers attitude toward their own jobs, while the influence of other variables such as the type of ownership, managers education and age proved to be statistically insignificant.

As for the variables affecting managers attitude towards socio-cultural and technological changes, the results which were presented in this chapter indicated that the age and education of managers have no significant contribution or association towards the variations in managers attitude toward such change.

CHAPTER 13

Endnotes

1. Stephen R. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.12.
2. Blair J. Kolasa, Introduction to Behavioural Sciences for Business. (New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1969), p. 386.
3. Milton Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values. (New York: The Free Press 1973), p.5.
4. Clyde Kluckhohn *et al.* Values and Value Orientation in the Theory of Action in Toward a General Theory of Action Eds. Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 395.
5. Stanley M. Duais, Comparative Management: Organisational and Cultural Perspectives (Englewood, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc. 1969), p.10.
6. William A. Scott, Values and Organisations (Chicago: Rand McNally 1965), p.1-6.
7. Philip E. Jacob *et al.* Values and Their Function in Decision Making: American Behavioural Scientist, Supplement to Vol.V, No. 9 (May 1962), p.10.
8. Milton Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values: A Theory of Organisation and Change, p.1. Also see Hodgets *et al.*, A Profile of the Successful Female, pp.374-75.
9. *Ibid.*, p.125.
10. *Ibid.*, p.113.
11. Blair J. Kolasa, *op cit.*, p. 386.
12. Milton Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes and Values, pp. 122-123.
13. Clyde Kluckhohn, *op cit.*, pp. 432-433.
14. M.K. Budeiri, Changes in the Economic Structure of the West Bank and Gaza Strip under Israeli Occupation. Labour Capital and

Society, Vol. 15, No. 1 (April, 1982), p. 55.

15. Farid A. Muna, *op cit.*, p. 94-99.
16. The original intention of the researcher was to measure managers lateness in a period of only 6 months but due to the fact that the researcher began the data collection when the Palestinian uprising was over 6 months old, he found that he had to switch to 12months so as reasons other than the Intifada if any could be explored..
17. Palestinians in all the occupied territories are required to carry a military identity card wherever they go. These cards are necessary in order to be able to travel or walk around in the occupied territories..All military cards were issued by the Israeli Department of Census in the various districts of the territories.
18. Holy Quran : S.IX.51.
19. M. Sami Kassem, *et al* , *op cit.*, p.13.
20. P. Fargues. The Decline of Arab Fertility, Population, Vol.1.44, No. 1, (Paris, 1988), p.173.
21. Atif A. Kubursi, Job Education and Development: The Case of the West Bank in George T. Abed (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy (London: Routledge, 1988), p. 223.
22. Khalil Nakhleh *et al* , The Sociology of the Palestinians (London: Croom Helm, 1980), p. 154.
23. Ibid., pp.157-158.
24. Ibid., p. 147.
25. Hadith
26. Holy Quran : S.IV 34-35.
27. Hadith - consists of the acts and sayings of prophet Muhammad and early Islam.
28. Darlene May, Women in Islam: Yesterday and Today. In Cyriac K. Pullapilly, Islam in the Contemporary World. (Indiana: Cross Roads Books 1980), p. 388.

29. Khalil Nakhleh *et al*, *op cit.*, p. 157.
30. Ibid., p.158.
31. Daily Mail, Wednesday, January 24, 1990.
32. Stephen R. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.172.
33. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 107.
34. Stephen R. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.174
35. L. Harris *et al* Feasibility Study for the Establishment of Industrial Development in The Occupied Territories, (Vienna: UNIDO) 1988 .

CHAPTER 14

WOMEN MANAGERS ROLE

"Unto men a fortune from that which they have earned, and unto women
a fortune from that which they have earned".

(Holy Quran IV : 32) ⁽¹⁾

14.1 Introduction

One of the most interesting aspects of this study is that it incorporates 13 women managers in its sample. Although the subject of femininity has been discussed in previous chapters, and the attitudes of West Bank managers towards women in employment, both as managers and labourers, has also been discussed in the preceding chapter where it was reported that 63.4 per cent of male managers in the sample have a favourable attitude towards women working as managers, the researcher still believes that the role of women managers interviewed should be discussed further. Until now not a single study has been carried out on women managers in the Arab World and particularly in the West Bank.

This chapter, therefore, attempts to discuss the role of women managers surveyed, more specifically their role as members of mankind, members of their families, and as members of West Bank society. In order to achieve this objective, it is believed that an understanding of their background is vital.

14.2 Women Managers: Background

As mentioned earlier, this chapter attempts to present an understanding of

the role of women managers in the sample. However, prior to the discussion of their role, it is necessary to shed light on their background and characteristics.

14.2.1 Women Managers Age

The women managers participating in the survey are employed in various types of organisations. Their ages vary. Table 14.1 presents an overview of their age.

Table 14.1 Women Managers Age

Age Category	Percent
Less than 30 years	15.3
30 to 39 years	46.2
40 years and over	38.5
TOTAL	100.0

Mean: 42.30 Years

The table shows that more than 46 per cent of the total women in the sample are between 30 and 39 years of age, 38.5 per cent are 40 years and over. Only 15.3 per cent are below 30. The minimum age of women in the sample is 25 years and the maximum 70. The average age of women managers surveyed is 42.30 years as compared with 45.57 years for male managers. The maximum age here demonstrates that older women can stay in business even beyond retirement age which is normally 60 years. The main reason behind this could be due to the absence of a national government as well as the lack of comprehensive retirement plans in the

West Bank.(2)

14.2.2 Place of Birth

Where do women managers on the West Bank come from? The findings in Table 14.2 show that 84.6 per cent of women managers participating in the study were born in the West Bank. It also shows that 7.7 per cent were born in Lebanon. The remaining managers were born in South America and more specifically in Chile.

Table 14.2 Place of Birth

Place	Percent
West Bank	84.6
Lebanon	7.7
South America	7.7
TOTAL	100.0

Looking at Table 14.2, we notice that only 15.2 per cent were born outside the West Bank. It is believed that those managers entered the West Bank during the period 1949-1967 when the West Bank was controlled by the Hashmite Kingdom of Jordan. The main reason for such belief is that the Israeli authorities forbid the entrance of foreigners to the West Bank for reasons of employment. It fact the Israeli authorities forbid exiled Palestinians from visiting the occupied territories unless a member of the immediate family is still living in the West Bank. To enable an exiled Palestinian to visit the West Bank an application has to be submitted by a member of his/her immediate family. Applications made by husbands or wives are also acceptable. Despite all this, the authorities maintain the right to reject any application without further explanation.(3)

14.2.3 Marital Status

Table 14.3 indicates that over half of women managers in the sample, 53.8 per cent, are single. The table also shows that 46.2 per cent are married women of whom 7.7 per cent are divorced.

Table 14.3 Marital Status

Status	Percent
Single	53.8
Married	38.5
Divorced	7.7
TOTAL	100.0

Having such a high percentage of single women is not surprising. Several reasons could be used in explaining such findings:

First: Age factor. Several findings indicated that in the West Bank the mean age at marriage for the Palestinian male is 23.6 years, and the female average is 19.6 years, indicating that females marry at a younger age than males. However, our findings indicate that the mean age of women managers in the sample is 42.30 years. (4)

Second: Not finding the right husband. It is believed that employed women, and more specifically top managers, may have higher standards for the conditions of their marriage, than the ordinary and unemployed females.

Third: Women managers high level of education as will be shown later on in this chapter, coupled with employment status, may prove counter-productive. Nakhleh (1980) in his study on Palestinian women wrote:

“claim that higher education may be an asset in finding an educated husband are usually countered by the assertion that too much education may in the long run prove counter-productive and

an impediment to marriage. This is especially true among the lower classes, since educated professional men of this class tend to seek partners among members of the middle class, while those with less education prefer less educated women who make more obedient wives". (5)

When looking for a partner, an Arab male normally pays little attention to his intended wife's employment status. Instead, he expects her to bring joy, love, peace and warmth to their marital relationship. She has to ensure her husband comfort and well being, and has to be honest, obedient, and careful with all his belongings. In fact, a loyal woman should not leave her house without her husband's permission. In return, a husband should treat his wife with kindness, patience, love, respect and understanding. He should be generous with her and should cause her no emotional grief or harm. The Quran says:

".....a woman must be retained in honour or released in kindness"(6) and says "but consort them with kindness, for if ye hate them it may happen that ye hate anything wherein God hath placed much good".(7)

14.2.4. Number of Children

The findings in Table 14.4 show that out of the married women only 23 per cent have more than 3 children, while 15.3 per cent have less than 2. The mean number of children for female managers is 1.0, which is considered to be much lower than the average number of children for West Bank families, which is found to be 4.7 children. Interestingly, the average number of children for women managers is even lower than that of their male counterparts. Previous findings show the mean number of children for male managers in the study to be 3.7 children. One argument of equal

relevance for the low average number of children for female managers is the direct competition between employment and childbearing. Fargues in his study "The Decline of Arab Fertility" wrote:

" childbearing and employment may be in competition with one another. They compete for time, which could be devoted to either child-rearing or paid work. More generally, there is competition between two aspirations, family fulfillment and social achievement. This competition is world wide, but the problem may be particularly acute in Arab societies. It is there that urban women's employment rates are the lowest in the world".⁽⁸⁾

Table 14.4 Number of Children

Number	Percent
0 Children	61.5
Less than 3 children	15.4
More than 3 children	23.1
TOTAL	100.0

Mean: 1.0 child

Apart from competition, an Arab and specifically a Muslim mother, is embedded with some obligations as to her child. As a mother she should keep her child away from any moral and physical harm, treat the child with compassion and love, and provide all the education necessary for the child's development. Indeed, because of her valuable role as a mother, the prophet said in his Hadith:

Someone asked the prophet: "Who deserves my service most after God?" The prophet said "Your mother". The person asked again,

asked further “And who is next?”. The prophet replied “Your mother”. The man asked once more, “And who is next?” The prophet said “Your father”.⁽⁹⁾

Looking at this Hadith, we notice that the mother in Islam is due a full three quarters of the child’s love and attention. Moreover, in his Hadith, the prophet placed the mother higher than the father. In a similar Hadith, the prophet said:

“.....Paradise is under the feet of the mother”.

These are some of the duties and obligations of mothers towards their children. Therefore, under no circumstances should a mother place economic and other related aspects above the rearing of children. These aspects could be seen as possible reasons for West Bank women managers not having as many children as the average West Bank family as a whole.

14.2.5 Educational Achievement

Women managers participating in the survey were employed in a variety of companies and organisations. Table 14.5 shows that Palestinian women managers have diverse educational backgrounds. The results in the table

Table 14.5 Educational Achievement

Level	Percent
High School (Secondary Education)	7.7
University	92.3
TOTAL	100.0

show that 92.3 per cent of women managers graduated from universities whilst only one manager had just completed high school education.

These findings are not contrary to our expectations because other studies already emphasised that the number of female university graduates among Palestinians is higher than that among other Arabs. In fact other studies revealed that the Palestinian level of education relative to their population is one of the highest in the world, could be the third highest.⁽¹⁰⁾ The high educational level for female managers could be attributed to several reasons:

- (i) First and foremost, in Islam for a woman to be an effective member of her society, she must first obtain an education. May, in her study on "Woman in Islam: Yesterday and Today", indicated that the acquiring of knowledge is one of the most basic and serious obligations incumbent upon Muslims, for Islam is, more than any other religion, a way of knowledge.⁽¹¹⁾ Several Quranic verses and Hadiths have been cited to this effect. Among them:
 "Say: My Lord! increase my knowledge".⁽¹²⁾
 "God will exalt to high ranks, those who believe among you, and those who have knowledge".⁽¹³⁾
 "Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave"⁽¹⁴⁾ and the Hadith:
 "The Search for knowledge is a duty of every Muslim, male or female".⁽¹⁵⁾

Apart from the religious reasons, there are other reasons behind the high percentage of women managers educational level. Some of the factors are political while others are economic. Fasheh (1989) in his study on the impact of occupation on Palestinian education wrote:

"..... Because of the loss of most of their land, which was the

means of livelihood for the majority of Palestinians, they increasingly turned to the only thing that was left for them to invest in - their minds".(16)

As for the economic factor, it is believed that Palestinian women no longer think of themselves as being dependent on their husbands. They have the right to full freedom of economic action. Women believe that they, along with their husbands, should work in order to improve their economic situation and well being. Moreover, in many instances the loss of the father or the arrest of the breadwinner in the Palestinian family has left the Palestinian woman with no choice but to work and support the family. These are believed to be some of the reasons for the rise in the Palestinian female managers level of education. However, for more details on the subject of female education on the West Bank, refer to chapter eight of this study.

14.2.6 Field of Study

Table 14.6 shows that among female managers with university education, the largest proportion, 50 per cent is made up of graduates of the Faculty of Arts. The second largest group is that of graduates of the Faculty of Social

Table 14.6 Field of Study

Field	Percent
Art (literature and social work)	50.0
Social Science	25.0
Law	8.3
Education	8.3
Nursing	8.3
TOTAL	100.0

Sciences, constituting 25 per cent with all of them specialising in management. The remaining managers are graduates of the Faculties of Law, Education and Nursing.

Interestingly, these findings support the claims that Palestinian education is more theoretical than practical. In fact, this finding supports the recommendation is that the reorganising and restructuring of the Palestinian education system so that more attention can be given to the vocational and technical aspects. Again, for more details on education see chapter eight.

14.2.7 Nature of Work

The analysis of the findings show that 92.3 per cent of women managers are employed in the public sector. They work in services such as: social affairs and community services, education and health. Indeed these jobs are labeled as female professions for they are normally mostly occupied by females, at least in the West Bank. The remaining manager is employed in the manufacturing sector, specifically in the artificial limbs factory in Bethlehem.

14.2.8 Length of Service

Table 14.7 shows that 92.3 per cent of women managers surveyed have been working with their present firms for not more than 19 years, 38.5 per cent of whom have only been working for not more than 10 years. The table also shows that only one manager has been working for more than 20 years.

Table 14.7 Length of Service

Number of Years	Percent
Less than 10 years	38.5
10 to 19 years	53.8
20 years and more	7.7
TOTAL	100.0
Mean 10.84 years	

The mean length of service is 10.8 years that is 2.3 years less than that of their male counterparts. One possible explanation is that females entered employment much later than males and because of the difficulties they might have faced in finding employment early in their professional careers.

14.2.9 Training

The overall findings indicated that the vast majority of Palestinian female managers are internally motivated. The research results indicate that 84.6 per cent of the total women in the sample attended training programmes at least once in their working careers, whilst only 15.4 per cent did not attend any training programme.

Concerning the nature of training programmes attended, the analysis in Table 14.8 indicate that 45.4 per cent of the managers attended training programmes in social services development, 27.3 per cent in business administration, while the remaining 27.3 per cent attended training programmes in the field of higher education development.

Table 14.8 Nature of Training

Training Programme	Percent
Social Services Development	45.4
Business Administration	27.3
Higher Education Development	27.3
TOTAL	100.0

14.2.10 Place of Training

Interestingly, the findings in Table 14.9 indicate that over half of the female managers, 54.5 per cent, attended training programmes inside the West Bank, 27.3 per cent in Britain and the United States, while the remaining 18.2 per cent went to Lebanon and Jordan. These findings also show that the Arabs especially in the West Bank are more tolerant with their daughters or wives. They even allow them to go away from their homes and outside their country to receive training.

Table 14.9 Place of Training

Place	Percent
West Bank	54.5
Britain and US	27.3
Arab countries	18.2
TOTAL	100.0

This concludes our discussion of the main characteristics of women managers in the West Bank. The following section will attempt to investigate their various roles.

14.3 Women Managers Role in the West Bank

As mentioned earlier, the aim of this chapter is to investigate women managers role. It is believed that the status and role of the woman in Muslim society remains one of the most grossly misunderstood and misrepresented aspects of Islam in the West.⁽¹⁷⁾ It is hoped that the remaining analysis of this chapter will present the reader with a true picture of the role of women in the West Bank as members of an Islamic society. For the purpose of this study, and in order to understand womens' role, the researcher finds it vital to discuss the role of women according to Islamic laws so as to better conceptualise the findings from the analysis.

14.3.1 The Traditional Role of Women According to Islamic Law

First and foremost, it is important to re-emphasise that the traditional Islamic view of women is mainly rooted in one precise and well defined book known as the Quran, and in a very large number of short texts, called the Sunnah, which is the collection of Hadiths or inspired sayings uttered by the prophet as well as the deeds performed by him.

According to the Quran and Sunnah, the roles of Muslim women are summarised in three main categories:

First: her role as a member of mankind

Second: her role as a member of her family and

Third: her role as a member of society.

14.3.1.1 Woman's Role as a Member of Mankind

As already indicated, the role of women is clearly manifested in Islam. The

Islamic laws, therefore, regulate not only the action of women but also the actions of the people with whom they come in direct contact.

All women in Islam are prescribed certain roles due to their nature. Because of being a human being and created by God, she must devote herself to His service. As a servant of God, a Muslim woman must fulfill certain duties and obligations. First and foremost, she must fulfill the five pillars of Islam: reciting the testimony of faith, carry out the five daily prayers, keep the fast of the month of Ramadan, pay the alms, and make the pilgrimage to Mecca at least once in her lifetime. (See chapter seven for more details).

While it is the duty of all Muslims, male and female, to perform these duties, women because of the physiological differences enjoy certain exemptions which are not given to men. These exemptions include:

- (i) A Muslim woman is exempted from performing the five daily prayers for a maximum of ten days during menstruation.
- (ii) A Muslim woman is exempted from performing the five daily prayers for a period of forty days after giving birth. However, in both cases, a woman is not entitled to make up the prayers at later times.
- (iii) Unlike men, a woman is not recommended to pray in congregation at a Mosque. Instead, they are advised to pray at home so as to be able to look after the house and children and to avoid any hardship that her absence from the home may cause. However, if a woman chose to pray in public, she must pray with other women in the last lines of the congregation behind the ranks of the adult males and the intermediate ranks of male children. On many occasions a partition

is used to separate the sexes. One possible reason for the separation of the sexes is to maximise the degree of spiritual concentration and to eliminate any sexual distraction that might be caused by the presence of women. Interestingly, under no circumstances should a woman lead the prayers of a mixed congregation.

- (iv) During her menstrual period or her confinement after childbirth, a woman is exempted from fasting during the month of Ramadan. One possible reason for this is that God does not want to cause any hardship for her or her child. The Quran says "God desires ease for you, He desireth not hardship for you".⁽¹⁸⁾
- (v) In the making of a pilgrimage to Mecca, a woman is relieved from performing certain rites such as the ritual prayers, and is required to postpone others, such as the run between Safa and Marwa.
- (vi) Unlike man, during the making of the pilgrimage, a woman can wear any garment of her choice provided that only her face and hands are covered. On the contrary, man is required to wear two large pieces of white seamless cloth.

These are the main duties and obligations incumbent on Muslim women. We have also seen the list of exemptions, prescribed mainly for them. To enable employees to perform certain duties at work, like the performing of the five prayers, many businesses which the researcher visited during his field work, have special separate Mosques (males and females) in their premises to help employees carry out their prayers when necessary. Among the organisations which have Mosques built inside their premises are the Jerusalem Cigarette Company, Juneidi Dairy Products and Hebron University.

14.3.1.2. Woman Manager's Role as a Member of Her Family

One important aspect of Palestinian society is the extended family (Hamula). In the West Bank the hamula is regarded as an umbrella for all its members. Members of the extended family are mutually responsible for one another. The extended family is regarded by many as a problem solver, where members meet regularly and discuss important and family related issues.

Any individual member of the extended family is expected to adhere to social and religious codes and under no circumstances he/she should deviate from cultural norms. Any deviation by any individual member is considered to be a disgrace (Fadiha or Ar) to the family's honour (Sharaf) which has been defined as: "....the Arabic word Sharaf (honour) comes from a root verb which implies "highness" both in physical position and in social standing".⁽¹⁹⁾ However, it should be emphasised that not all acts of "Fadiha" or "Ar" are of similar effect on the family honour. For example, for a girl to go around in a mini skirt is called "Aib" which is not as damaging to the honour as committing adultery or rape, (which is "Ar" or "Fadiha"). The treatment of such shameful acts vary. In the first incident, the punishment is not as severe, and normally comes from members of the immediate family. While in the second example, all acts of "Ar" or "Fadiha" require the intervention of the society, where different groups of people are involved because of the threats that such action may cause to the social equilibrium. Therefore, as a result of the importance of honour, any disgraced acts of "Ar" or "Fadiha" are punished through repudiation, and infractions by females have to be cleansed by their males or by any member of the family.

As of this, Nakhleh (1980) wrote:

“The role and status of Palestinian women in the hamula has been defined by centuries of cultural patterns and social restrictions and justified by religious sanction. It has also been maintained by local and alien governments ruling the Palestinians, who have utilised this traditional structure as a system of social control in order to avoid conflict and facilitate the administration of the conquered territories.”⁽²⁰⁾ (For more details about the concept of honour see chapter seven).

From an Islamic point of view the role of woman as a member of her family can be summarised as follows:

First: Woman’s obligation to her parents. She must obey parents, treat them with respect, provide them with all the help they need especially when they are not married.. The Quran says:

“Thy Lord hath decreed, that ye worship none save Him and that ye show kindness to parents. If one of them or both of them attain old age with thee, say not “Fie” unto them nor repulse them, but speak unto them a gracious work. And lower unto them the wing of submission through mercy, and say: “My Lord! Have mercy on them both as they did care for me when I was little”.⁽²¹⁾

Second: within her family, a woman should play the role of a sister by helping parents bring up other children.

This concludes the discussion of the role of woman as a member of her family. The following section will be dedicated to the discussion of the role of a woman as a member of society as found in the research.

14.3.1.3. Woman Manager's Role as a Member of Society

In addition to the roles discussed thus far, a woman as a manager has a clear cut obligation to her society.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher asked all respondents to answer the question "Because of your position in the organisation, what do you consider to be the main attributes (if any) which are expected of you by the community?" Not surprisingly, the responses given by 61.5 per cent of women managers show that their main and chief role as a member of society is a national one. See Table 14.10. The following sections will discuss the women managers social role in more detail.

Table 14.10 Attributes Expected of Women by Society

Attribute	Percent
National Duty	61.5
Improvement of Cultural and Scientific Levels of people	38.5
TOTAL	100.0

14.3.1.3.1. National Duty

In addition to her role as a daughter, sister, wife and mother, a woman manager in the West Bank is entitled to play an active role outside her family. It is believed that through the acquiring of knowledge, education and employment a woman should become an effective and productive member of society. This is because the society, like the family, is an extremely important unit of relationship in the Islamic world.⁽²²⁾

Therefore, a strong link should be emphasised between the individual and his society as well as between the individual and the other members of his family.

Within the West Bank as much as in the rest of the Muslim and Arab World, women managers are expected to play an important role in defending their countries. They should assist their fathers, brothers, husbands and sons in fulfilling their military duties and obligations. As a result women in Arab countries have entered the army ranks on equal footing with men. Among the countries to incorporate women in the army are Jordan, Libya and Iraq etc. However, due to the absence of a Palestinian National Government, the national role of women managers on the West Bank can be summarised in the following categories:

First: The creation of women's national committees. Committees are crucial in enhancing the role of a woman outside of her house and family. As a result women's committees came into existence especially in the sphere of food production and embroidery.

Second: Help in the establishment of nursery schools and kindergartens in villages, towns and in refugee camps. Women managers regard this role as important in order to fight the occupier whose main aim is to obliterate Palestinian education and identify through the continued and prolonged closure of schools, kindergartens and universities as shown in chapter eight.

Third: Political Leaders. Because of the Palestinian Intifada, the divisions among Palestinians (whether class or gender) have vanished. Giacaman, in her study on "Palestinian Women in the Uprising: From Followers to Leaders", wrote:

".....In a relatively short span of time, Palestinian women moved

from thoroughly secondary roles - as backup to men, and having been primarily preoccupied with provision of services - to major actors in the field of politics and the resistancy to military occupation”.

Although the role of women has changed even before the Intifada, the directive communiques of the unified national leadership of the uprising have called for an absolute revolution. The calls of the leadership and especially in communique number 18 urged all Palestinian women from all ranks to locate for themselves useful participatory roles in the uprising.⁽²³⁾ As a result, Giacaman, in an interview with one of the newly emerging leaders of the women’s movement in the occupied West Bank wrote:

“.... For the first time, we are seeing women participating in various ways in resisting occupation. In ways that we thought were not possible before the uprising. Women are now very active in neighbourhood committees. Their experience and organisational skills are facilitating the work of these committees in providing services to communities. They now participate as leaders and not only as service providers”.⁽²⁴⁾

Moreover, the Union of Palestinian Women’s Committees in the occupied land in its Newsletter (1988) wrote:

“.....and adhering to the call by the United National Leadership, the Union of Palestinian Womens’ Committees played an exceptional role in the formation of neighbourhood committees. The initial work included social visits to the families, coordination with other women’s committees and grassroot organisations in each respective

neighbourhood. Neighbourhood committees with almost similar structure have been formed in a number of neighbourhoods. They consist of different sub-committees such as education, agriculture, health, guarding and storage.”(25)

Regarding women managers belonging to professional bodies in the West Bank, a total of 53.8 per cent indicated that they belong to a local professional body of whom 71.4 per cent attend their professional bodies and unions quite often. 28.6 per cent seldom make visits to their unions. For more details about women's unions see chapter twelve.

14.3.1.3.2 Improvement of Cultural and Scientific Levels of People

Interestingly, 38.5 per cent of Palestinian women managers mentioned this as a major attribute. They believe that it is their duty to help people in the community to increase their understanding, knowledge and awareness of certain issues.

As a result, Palestinian women managers play an effective role in national celebrations and exhibitions. Many of them hold symposiums so as to help local women, like mothers, to deal with certain matters such as issues of hygiene and safety. Other women managers contribute financially in order to help improve the scientific and cultural level of people in the society. Indeed, many women managers help in the establishment of charitable organisations, while others play a major role in the structuring of local libraries and institutions of learning. For more information on women's unions see chapter twelve.

This finding is supported by later findings in the study where all women

managers, 100 per cent, expressed their support for the increase in the introduction of automation and technology into West Bank businesses.

This concludes our discussion of the main roles expected of women managers as apparent in the findings. It is believed that this discussion will help the reader to better understand the role of Palestinian women managers surveyed.

14.4 Summary

The material presented in this chapter has provided a distinctive discussion of the major characteristics of women as managers in the West Bank. It has outlined the basic roles of women in the Islamic society of the West Bank. It is apparent from the discussion that the role of women is three-fold in nature. West Bank women as managers have roles as members of mankind, as members of families and as members of society.

Moreover, the findings of this chapter demonstrate that the status of women in the West Bank has witnessed a dramatic change. Palestinian women no longer perceive themselves as followers and executors. Instead they see themselves as leaders in their society. In addition, the findings clearly show that Palestinian women as managers play an economic role through the acquiring of payment through labour.

CHAPTER 14

Endnotes

1. Holy Quran, IV : 32.
2. Because of annexation to the state of Israel, only the people of Jerusalem enjoy privileges such as child benefits, social security schemes and comprehensive retirement plans.
3. All exiled Palestinians and in order to come and live in the West Bank they must obtain a permit called "Family Reunification" that is Lam Shaml Al Ailat. Such permit is not easy to btain and will only be granted with the consent of the Israeli military governor in the district concerned. Most people who obtain permits do so through solicitors who normally press their cases on humanitarian grounds.
4. In the West Bank and because of cultural norms, it is unacceptable for a man to marry a woman who is many years older than him. On the contrary, a man should be some years older than his wife.
5. Khalil Nakhleh and Elia Zureik, *op cit.*, p. 154.
6. Holy Quran, II : 229.
7. Holy Quran, IV : 19.
8. P. Fargues, The Decline of Arab Fertility, Population, English Selection No.1, Vol.44, (September 1989).
9. Hadith.
10. See, for example, M. Hallaj in Emile Nakhleh, Ed., A Palestinian Agenda for the West Bank and Gaza (Washington, D.C.: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1986, Mari, Arab Education in Israel, p.109 and Munir Fasheh, *op cit.*, p. 295-336.

11. Darlene May, "Women In Islam: Yesterday and Today", in Cyrian K. Pullapilly (Ed.) *op cit.*, p.385.
12. Holy Quran, XX : 114.
13. Holy Quran, LVIII : 11.
14. Hadith.
15. Hadith.
16. Munir Fasheh, "Impact on Education", in Naseer Aruri, *op cit.*, p.195.
17. Darlene May, *op cit.*, p.371.
18. Holy Quran, II : 185.
19. See, for example, J.G. Peristriany, Honour and Shame: The Value of Mediterranean Society (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1965).
20. Khalil, Nakhleh and Elia Zureik, *op cit.*, p.148.
21. Holy Quran, XVII : 23-24.
22. Darlene May, *op cit.*, p.384.
23. Rita Giacaman, "Palestinian Women in the Uprising: From Followers to Leaders". Journal of Refugee Studies Vol..2, No.1, 1989, p.143. See Also Mary Khass, The Effects of Occupation on Women and Young People - Some Examples, Journal of Refugee Studies, Vol.2, No.1, 1989, pp.147-149.
24. Rita Giacaman, *op cit.*
25. Union of Palestinian Womens Committees in the Occupied Land, Newsletter, (July 1988), p.2.

CHAPTER 15

MANAGERIAL THINKING

“Nature has placed mankind under the governance
of two sovereign masters, pain and pleasures”

(Jeremy Bentham, English Philosopher)⁽¹⁾

15.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters, we shed light on the various definitions of an attitude, belief and other related concepts. Managers attitudes towards change were also examined. The aim of this chapter, however, is twofold: first, it aims to take the concept of attitude and belief a step further by examining managers attitudes and beliefs toward and about various managerial functions and themes, and to identify the main individual and organisational variables that have an impact on the managers thinking. Second, the chapter aims to discuss the various managerial needs and to take the question of how important the various needs are to the subjects in that particular region of the globe.

15.2 Managers Attitudes Toward Certain Managerial Functions

In the preceding chapters, the term attitude was defined as:

“a predisposition to react positively or negatively, to a person, place or circumstances. It is therefore a tendency to respond and can be considered a “leaning” in one direction or another. There are two main elements in an attitude, the predisposition and the direction of that predisposition”.⁽²⁾

With this definition in mind, the researcher has asked respondents to respond to 15 different attitudinal statements which were extracted from

literature and other questionnaires and more specifically from questionnaires used by other researchers like Haire, Ghiselli and Porter in their studies on managerial thinking. All statements used were meant to examine the attitudes of managers toward five managerial functions using a five point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5 ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"). The five managerial functions were: planning and forecasting, organising and staffing, communicating, leading and motivating. All managers interviewed were given the statements and were then asked to choose the number that most fully represents their attitudes to the various items based on the scale already prescribed. After having collected all the responses, the mean scores were computed for each one of the items and for each of the five categories of the functions. Table 15.1 presents a clear picture of the main findings.

15.2.1 Discussion of Major Findings on Managers Attitudes

Prior to the discussion of the major findings and in order to have a better conceptualisation of the results, the researcher believes that it is imperative to shed light on the various definitions of managerial functions under investigation, despite the fact that most if not all functions have already been defined and discussed in the second chapter of the study.

15.2.11 Attitudes Towards Planning

Planning has been defined as "the formulation of future course of action. Plans and objectives on which they are based give purpose and direction to the organisation, its subunits, and contribution of individuals".⁽³⁾ In another definition planning was defined as "the process of preparing for change and coping with uncertainty by formulating future course of action".⁽⁴⁾ Therefore, planning is regarded as the cornerstone for all other

managerial functions. It is the function on which all other functions are built.

Despite its importance, the findings in Table 15.1 indicate that over 50 per cent of West Bank managers agreed with the statement "No point in making long range planning due to economic and political instability" and the statement "The future cannot be predicted and therefore cannot be controlled" 50.8 and 54.8 per cent respectively. The mean scores for the statements are 2.9 and 2.6 per cent in the same order. However, the grand total indicates that 50.2 per cent of the managers agreed with both statements in one way or another with a grand mean of 2.56. This category therefore ranked fifth among the other categories taking into consideration that both statements are in the negative form and the mean score is the highest and in the range of agreement. Based on this finding the researcher thinks that he is justified in saying that West Bank managers on the average are fatalistic. Rogers (1969) has defined fatalism as "the degree to which an individual perceives a lack of ability to control his future".⁽⁵⁾ This finding is supported by the findings of other researchers such as Zahra (1980) who argued that Egyptian managers like many other nationalities in the Middle East are fatalistic.⁽⁶⁾ Murrell (1979) also found that in the Egyptian management culture there is a bias against planning and its importance.⁽⁷⁾ Yet, despite these findings, Muna (1980) found that Arab executives are not fatalistic. In his study Muna unequivocally emphasised that Arab executives are far from being fatalistic and that they are future-oriented, rational in this thinking, planning and deliberation, and they attempt to control and prevent adverse future events.

Westerners in their description of an Arab's fatalistic behaviour have often emphasised the Arab's fatalistic approach to life by the following story:

"When all the birds were gathered together to make their final arrangements before starting on a pilgrimage to Mecca, they passed a resolution saying: "If God wills, we will start tomorrow". But, the hens cried out "If God wills or not, we will start tomorrow". When the time came to start they were punished for their irreverent words by finding themselves unable to fly".⁽⁸⁾

This story, however, is rather a good explanation of an Arab's fear of opposing God's will than an explanation of the Arab fatalistic behaviour.

Despite the managers high educational level the researcher believes that their lack of appreciation for the value of planning can be attributed to the volatile situation and to the political instability in that region of the Middle East. The researcher believes that managers experience already proved that planning is almost impossible. Many managers complained of the sudden closure of businesses and the curfews imposed by the Israeli authorities. The researcher has also suffered from such a difficult situation when he had to reschedule his interviews with managers on many occasions mainly in Nablus and Ramallah due to military curfews, checkpoints and travel restrictions which were suddenly imposed by the authorities.

15.2.1.2 Attitudes Towards Organising and Staffing

Organising has been defined as "the structuring of a coordinated system of authority relationships and task responsibilities".⁽⁹⁾ Staffing on the other hand, means "human resources planning, acquisition, and development aimed at providing the talent necessary for organisational success".⁽¹⁰⁾

The two functions of management, organising and staffing, are so closely related to the point that many writers do not make any distinction between them.⁽¹¹⁾ The main difference between them, however, is that organising focuses on the structure and process of allocating jobs so that common goals can be achieved. While staffing, on the other hand, focuses on the people in the jobs. Therefore, one can conclude that organising is job oriented and staffing is worker oriented.⁽¹²⁾

Table 15.1 brings out striking findings. The table indicates that the majority of West Bank managers, 87.6 per cent, agreed with the statement "formal training helps a manager to perform his job satisfactorily". The mean is 1.8. The finding is not surprising as previous findings already indicated that 59.9 per cent of the total managers had already attended training programmes. Therefore, the researcher believes that the managers high educational level contributed positively in this direction. Interestingly 73.4 per cent, of the managers disagreed mostly with the statement "When considering an employee for promotion seniority should be given greater weight than merit". Only 14.7 per cent of the total managers agreed with the statement and in their response many of them reiterated the Arabic common saying which means "Shifting jobs is futile". Among the managers who were adamantly against the statement is Muhammad Jewabrah, Director of Education for the Bethlehem district. During an interview Jawabrah commented: "I am totally against the idea that seniority is more important than merit. If you imagine having a soldier who has been with his regiment for twenty years, I believe that this soldier is sometimes unable to shoot a kitten, unlike young and new recruits who are more active, capable and enthusiastic". This illustration, however, is rather a

Table 15.1 Managerial Attitudes (Percentage and mean scores)

Attitudes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean* \bar{X}	Rank
<u>Planning and Forecasting</u>							
No point in making long range plans due to economic and political instability	15.8	35.0	6.2	26.0	16.9	2.9	2
The future cannot be predicted and therefore cannot be controlled	19.2	35.6	13.6	27.7	4.0	2.6	1
GRAND TOTAL	22.0	28.2	23.7	23.7	2.3	2.56	(5)
<u>Organising and Staffing</u>							
Formal training helps a manager to perform his job satisfactorily	40.1	47.5	5.6	5.1	1.7	1.8	2
When considering an employee for promotion, seniority should not be given greater weight than management	5.1	9.6	11.9	50.8	22.6	3.8	3
Policy, goals, objectives should be carefully explained to everyone in the organisation	54.2	33.9	5.1	5.1	1.7	1.7	1
GRAND TOTAL	10.7	74.0	13.6	1.7	0.0	2.06	(3)
<u>Communication</u>							
Employees should feel free to discuss things that are important to them with their immediate boss	54.2	41.2	1.7	2.8	0.0	1.5	1
Criticism and advice from subordinates should always be welcomed	26.0	48.0	11.3	12.4	2.3	2.2	2
The boss should give his subordinates only the information necessary for them to do their immediate tasks	13.6	33.9	7.9	38.4	6.2	2.9	3
GRAND TOTAL	23.2	63.3	13.6	0.0	0.0	1.9	(1)

Table 15.1 Continued

Attitudes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean* \bar{X}	Rank
<u>Leading</u>							
A good boss should give details and complete instruction to his subordinates rather than giving them general information and depending on their initiative to work out the details	26.0	38.4	10.2	22.0	3.4	2.4	3
Thinking of alternative ways and methods by employees in order to solve certain problems should always be welcomed	28.2	61.0	6.8	4.0	0.0	1.9	1
Managers should help employees with their work when needed	29.4	59.9	5.1	5.1	0.6	1.9	2
Employees lose respect for a manager who asks them for advice before he/she makes a final decision	5.1	15.3	10.2	52.0	17.5	3.6	5
Certain kinds of working conflicts are not only inevitable but desirable to the conflicting parties, if effectively managed. (Conflicts are a healthy phenomenon if effectively managed)	9.6	50.3	15.8	19.8	4.5	2.6	4
GRAND TOTAL	9.0	76.3	14.1	0.6	0.0	2.06	(3)
<u>Motivating</u>							
The use of rewards and punishments is the best way to get subordinates to work effectively	23.7	37.9	12.4	24.3	1.7	2.4	2
Promotion from within the firm in order to fill a vacancy is better than promotion from outside the firm	29.4	46.9	14.1	7.3	2.3	2.1	1
GRAND TOTAL	27.7	46.3	22.6	3.4	0.0	2.02	(2)

Scale used: 1 = strongly agree 2 = agree 3 = neutral 4 = disagree 5 = strongly disagree

* The lower the mean the more agreeable the manager is with the statement. Numbers in parenthesis mean categorical rank.

good explanation of some types of work where seniority is not necessarily advantageous to the firm, unlike secretarial work for example where the employee sometimes becomes the master of his work after the first year.

Among the other managers who defended their opposition to the statement about seniority and merit is Musa Kawasmi, a well known local manager who commented: ".....I do not prefer seniority to merit because to me any experience after the first year is regarded mainly as a repeated experience as the common saying goes "twenty years of experience is one year experience multiplied by twenty"".

As for the business policies and goals, 88.1 per cent of the managers agreed with the statement that "policies, goals and objectives should be carefully explained to everyone in business". The mean score is 1.7. The researcher believes that such a high appreciation for the value of organising and staffing is a direct result of manager education and specialisation in business and other related fields. The researcher believes that managers education in the West and in the United States was beneficial in a way that managers were exposed to Western and European management and behaviour. The researcher also believes that Palestinian Arab managers may have been influenced positively with Israeli managerial practices and behaviour.

Interestingly, this finding is in direct contrast with the finding of Zahra (1980) who indicated that Egyptian managers like many other nationalities in the Middle East share little appreciation for organising. This contrast might be attributed to the higher educational level of the managers interviewed as compared with their Arab counterparts.

15.2.1.3. Attitudes Towards Communicating

In the previous chapter, Davis, a well known management scholar has defined communication as “the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person”.⁽¹³⁾ The importance of communication was well emphasised by Horne and Lupton (1965) who pointed out that everything a manager does from motivating and influencing others to controlling and modifying their behaviour, revolves around communication. Communication is what managers do. It consumes some 50 to 90 per cent of managers time.⁽¹⁴⁾ Table 15.1 brings out the striking results. From the table it is evident that the vast majority of West Bank managers, 95.4 per cent, share a high appreciation for the importance of communication. The data indicated that these managers 95.4 per cent, agreed with the statement “employees should feel free to discuss things that are important to them with their immediate boss”. The mean score is 1.5. The findings also indicated that 74 per cent of the managers also agreed with the statement “Criticism and advise from subordinates should always be welcomed”. However, only 44.6 per cent of the total managers disagreed with the statement which says “Only necessary information should be given to subordinates”. Therefore, they believe that managers should give complete and detailed information to subordinates.

The most striking finding, however, is that communication was ranked first among all other managerial functions with the lowest mean score being 1.9. This finding is a clear indication that West Bank managers have a high appreciation of communication. The researcher believes that managers education and the experience they have gained form their presence and training in other foreign countries are major contributions to such positive attitude towards communication. The grand total for all the statements

indicate that 86.5 per cent of all the managers agreed with all the statements making a grand mean score of 1.9.

15.2.1.4 Attitudes Toward Leading

The term leading was defined as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals.⁽¹⁵⁾ The data in Table 15.1 indicated that 64.4 per cent of West Bank managers agreed with the statement “a good boss should give details and complete instructions to his subordinates”. The mean score is 2.4. The data in the table also shows that the vast majority of respondents, 89.2 per cent agreed with the statement “thinking of alternative ways and methods by employees in order to solve certain problems should always be welcomed”. The mean is 1.9. Interestingly, almost the same percentage of managers, 89.3 percent, have agreed with the statement “managers should help employees with their work when needed”. The mean score is 1.9.

Ahmad Abdin, a Swedish graduate, was among the managers who strongly supported the statement that “managers should help employees with their work when necessary”. In an interview Abdin commented: “.....I most fully agree that a good manager should help his employees when necessary. By doing so, employees will have more respect for the manager. Therefore I sometimes help the employees sweep the floor of the factory and the aisles around the machines....”.

The statement was also vigorously supported by Anton Nahas, manager of the Patriarch Hotel in Jerusalem, who said: “.....As a manager at this Hotel, I sometimes help the employees clean up the toilets. Managers

should help employees. There is nothing a manager should be ashamed of doing.....”.

These findings were also supported by another subsequent finding where it was found that 69.5 per cent of the managers disagreed with the statement “employees loose respect for a manager who asks them for advice before he/she makes a final decision”. Only 20.6 per cent of the total managers supported this statement. The mean score is 3.6 which means that the average managers tended to disagree with the statement.

As for the managers attitudes towards working conflicts only 59.9 per cent of the managers believe that conflicts are a healthy phenomenon if managed effectively. Only 7.1 per cent of the managers had a negative attitude to work conflicts. The mean score is 2.6 which means that the average managers tended to agree with the statement.

Among the managers with a positive attitude toward the statement is Hashem Juneidi, a well known local manager who runs a dairy factory. In an interview with the manager, he commented: “....I am fully in agreement with the statement which says work conflicts are a healthy phenomenon if effectively managed.....because I see work conflicts as a symptom of a disease which should be eradicated. Work conflicts are a self critique of the work made by the conflicting employees. We should exploit conflicts in the interest of the organisation because employees sometimes are closer to the job than their managers”.

Not all managers, however, view conflicts as something good and healthy. Among the managers who see conflicts as fatal to the organisation is the

manager of Al-Qamar Towel Factory in Aida refugee camp near Bethlehem. The manager commented: “....I am adamantly against conflicts at work, and when they occur, I try not to intervene at all.....because if I do so I will eventually be accused of being biased with one party against the other”. However, the researcher believes that this is not the proper way to handle conflicts because if conflicts and problems are left unattended, they will smoulder and smoulder until they eventually explode.

Other managers who see conflicts as something not in the interest of the business or firm is an administrator from Jenin who commented: “I do not like work conflicts at all.....because conflicts sometimes help disclose business secrets”.

The researcher believes that West Bank managers are sometimes against work conflicts because of cultural reasons. In the West Bank conflicts at work sometimes escalate and eventually become conflicts between families. Such argument was well supported by Muhammad Masrougy, Manager of Jerusalem Pharmaceutical Company who simply stated: “.....I do not like conflicts to occur in the workplace because sometimes they escalate and eventually will be carried to the homes and therefore becoming conflicts between families and tribes”.

As a result of the subjects fear of work conflicts some of the managers interviewed are found to be potential problem solvers. Muhammad Abu Hashim, an American graduate commented: “.....My father taught me to pinpoint problems and to solve them before they occur. As a result I always try to put the bones together before breaking them”.

The researcher also believes that the reputation of the manager is another reason for managers dislike of work conflicts. In the West Bank, a work conflict may connote poor management which might jeopardise the managers reputation in an area where reputation is valued most highly.

Looking at Table 15.1 we will see that 85.3 per cent of the managers agreed with all the statements measuring leading, with only 14.1 per cent of the managers undecided. The grand mean is 2.06 therefore making the managerial function, leading, to rank third among all the functions investigated.

15.2.1.5 Attitudes Towards Motivating

As mentioned earlier, motivation refers to the psychological process that gives behaviour purpose and direction.⁽¹⁶⁾ A more descriptive but less substantive definition of motivation was also given by Robbins who defined motivation as “the willingness to do something, and is conditioned by the ability to satisfy some need for the individual”.⁽¹⁷⁾

As for the respondents attitude towards motivation, the data in Table 15.1 indicates that the majority of managers 61.6 per cent, agreed with the statement “The use of rewards and punishments is the best way to get subordinates to work effectively”. The mean score is 2.4 which implies that the average managers tended to agree with the statement. The findings also indicate that 76.3 per cent of the subjects agreed with the statement “promotion from within the firm to fill a vacancy is better than promotion from outside the firm”. Only 9.6 per cent of the subject disagreed with the statement. The mean score is 2.1 which also indicates that the average manager tended to agree with the statement. The grand total for all the

statements used in measuring leading, indicates that 74 per cent of the managers agreed to both statements together with a grand mean of 2.02. As a result motivation is placed second after being preceded by a lower mean for communication.

The researcher believes that the managers support for promotion vs hiring, stems from their understanding that:

- promotion from within is far less expensive than hiring
- promotion from within can have a positive motivational effect
- promotable insiders are proven performers.”(18)

This latter point was clearly supported by the managers through citation of the well known Arabic saying: “Maa Buhruth Al Bilad Illa Ujulha” which means “A land is ploughed save only by its calves”. However, this proverb is used mostly in order to emphasise the preference of local personnel to foreign ones.

This concludes the discussion of the managers attitudes towards certain managerial functions. However, there will be a fuller discussion of the main individual and organisational variables which seemed to have a significant influence on the managers response to the various functions.

15.3 Discussion of Major Findings on Managers Beliefs

In the preceding chapters we defined the term “belief” as

“inferences made by an observer about underlying state of expectancy” and as “any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious inferred from what a person says or does capable of being preceded by the phrase I believe that.....”.

The content of a belief may describe the object of belief as true or false, correct or incorrect, evaluate it as good or bad; or advocate a certain course of action or a certain state of existence as desirable or undesirable. The first kind of belief may be called a descriptive or existential belief (I believe that the sun rises in the east); the second kind of belief may be called an evaluative belief (I believe this ice cream is good); the third kind of belief may be called a prescriptive or exhortatory belief (I believe it is desirable that children should obey their parents). Whether or not the content of a belief is to describe, evaluate, or exhort, all beliefs are predisposition to action, and attitude is thus a set of interrelated predispositions to action organised around an object or situation".⁽¹⁹⁾

To measure respondents beliefs, all subjects were asked to respond to 12 different statements which were categorised under four different managerial themes. They are: Managers relationships (e.g. with employees), social, seniority, and individual and organisational behaviour. All statements used were extracted from literature. Questionnaires used by other researchers were also reviewed and considered.

To examine managers beliefs, all respondents were given the statements and were then asked to respond to each statement by choosing the number that fully represented their beliefs about each statement using a scale ranging from 1 to 5 ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"). The lower the score that was given by the manager, the more agreeable the manager was with the statement. Percentages and mean scores were computed for respondents checking of various points on the five point Likert scale for each one of the statements and for each one of the categories. The following section will be

dedicated to the discussion of the major findings.

15.3.1 Managers Relationships (i.e. with employees)

Table 15.2 brings out the striking results of managers beliefs about the various themes already described. The data in the table indicates that West Bank managers have a high concern for people *viz* employees. It is evident from the table that nearly all respondents agreed with the statement “everyone in business should be treated alike and equally with no favourites at all” and the statement “personal problems and grievances of employees should be a matter of direct concern to their companies or firms” and the statement “managers should have tolerance for problems, complaints, and protests from employees”, 90.4, 96.6 and 89.2 per cent respectively. The grand mean is found to be the lowest 1.44 among all other means in the table thus indicating that West Bank managers mostly agreed with these statements than with the others.

Among the managers who strongly supported the statements is a manager from Nablus who said “....personal matters of employees should be a matter of direct concern to the managers and organisation in which they work. By showing the employees that we care, we can help minimise some of the disastrous outcomes which might happen otherwise. For example, imagine an employee coming to work immediately after having a fight with his wife. The chance that the employee will check the brakes of his company car will be minimal.....the outcome of which could be disastrous”.

Another manager who strongly supported the statements is Mahmoud Obedo, manager of the Pama Shoe factory. In an interview with Obedo he

Table 15.2 Managerial Beliefs (Percentage and mean scores)

Beliefs	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean* \bar{X}	Rank
<u>Management Relations</u> (i.e. with employees)							
Everyone in business should be treated alike and equally with no favourites at all	52.5	37.9	5.1	4.5	0.0	1.62	2
Personal problems and grievances of employees should be a matter of direct concern to their companies and firms	44.6	52.0	1.7	1.7	0.0	1.6	1
Managers should have tolerance for problems, complaints and protests from employees	25.4	63.8	5.1	5.1	0.6	1.9	3
GRAND TOTAL	58.8	39.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	1.44	(1)
<u>Social</u>							
Social issues should not be discussed in business	6.8	26.6	21.5	38.4	6.8	3.1	2
The activities of charitable and social agencies should be supported by business companies and firms	45.8	48.0	4.5	1.7	0.0	1.6	1
Family, social or financial status are necessary elements for advancement or success	11.3	21.5	15.3	34.5	17.5	3.3	3
Knowing influential people is necessary in order to progress quickly inside the firm	7.3	21.5	14.1	34.5	22.6	3.4	4
GRAND TOTAL	5.6	41.8	48.6	4.0	0.0	2.51	(2)
<u>Length of Service</u> (seniority)							
Staying with one firm for the longest time possible is usually the best way to get ahead in that firm	15.3	24.9	16.9	35.6	7.3	2.9	1
In general the best manager in a firm is the one who has been with the firm for the longest time possible	8.5	26.0	19.2	38.4	7.9	3.11	2
GRAND TOTAL	11.3	25.4	32.8	27.1	3.4	2.86	(4)

Table 15.2 Continued

Beliefs	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean* \bar{X}	Rank
<u>Individual and Group Behaviour</u>							
Decisions made by individuals are usually of higher quality than decisions made by groups (committees)	5.6	12.4	11.9	54.2	15.8	3.6	3
A large organisation is a more desirable place to work than working in small organisations	10.1	39.0	23.2	24.9	2.8	2.7	1
Company rules and procedures should not be broken even though managers think it is in the company's interest to do so	11.9	34.5	17.5	29.4	6.8	2.8	2
GRAND TOTAL	4.0	29.0	56.5	9.6	0.0	2.72	(3)

Scale used: 1 = strongly agree 2 = agree 3 = neutral 4 = disagree 5 = strongly disagree

* The lower the mean the more agreeable the manager is with the statement. Numbers in parenthesis mean categorial rank.

commented: "I sometimes find myself forced to leave my work in order to attend a sick employee in the hospital or in his home. We have to show our employees that we care about them. We have to show them that they are our greatest asset. If we do not do so, the employees, their families, friends and the community at large will look down upon us especially because people have come to expect a lot from us. Their expectations are sometimes unreasonable".

As for the statement managers asked if they should show tolerance for their employees complaints and grievances, one manager of a plastic factory in Bethany commented: "We as managers must show tolerance for our employees because if we pull the rope too much (being tough), the rope might eventually loosen itself or it might even break, therefore, we have to be flexible". Another female administrator from Ramallah simply stated "A manager should not chop the employees head off".

The researcher believes that the main reason for the managers high concern for employees can be attributed to several factors:

First: religious. Nearly all the managers interviewed are Muslims. They are influenced by the Islamic faith and teaching where Islamic Sharia urges all Muslims to treat people with equity. The Quran is so explicit on this issue.

Second: high expectations placed on managers by the community. People in the West Bank view the managers as local leaders and as a result they expect them to be active and to be responsible.

Third: nature of Arab personality. Arabs in general are passionate and can be easily aroused. This argument is supported by Pezeshkpur who stated

that “the typical Arab is passionate and can be propelled into action through appealing to his emotions. This kind of action serves more as an emotional release than as a means of good attainment”.(20)

Fourth: the final reason for managers high concern for people is believed to be attributed to the managers high educational level, and to the influence of western and local media. It is important to point out that in the West Bank, both the Israeli and Jordanian television programmes are frequently critical of social issues and management behaviour and practice.

Moreover, and before moving on to the discussion of other managerial beliefs, the researcher finds it imperative to point out that these findings advocate other stereotypes of Middle Eastern managers where there is a widespread belief that Middle Eastern managers on the whole are authoritarian and generally old and outdated.

15.3.2 Social Beliefs

The findings in Table 15.2 indicate that 45.2 per cent of the managers believe that “social issues should be discussed in business” while only 33.4 per cent thought otherwise. The mean is 3.1 which omplies that the majority of managers tend to disagree with the statement.

As for those who agree with the statement, the researcher believes that their belief is attributed to their concern for people and as a result managers would believe that people like to work in amiable and friendly environments. It is also believed that such a positive attitude towards the statement might be attributed to the Arab’s high social need which will be discussed later on in this chapter. The researcher believes that managers who are against the discussion of social issues at work are those who are

very much influenced with the notion “business is business”.

The results in Table 15.2 also indicate that the vast majority of managers 93.8 per cent, believe that charitable and social organisations and agencies should be supported by businesses. The mean score is 1.6 which implies that the vast majority of the managers tend to agree with the statement.

This finding is not contrary to the researcher's expectation as previous findings already indicated that West Bank managers are expected to support charitable organisations either financially or morally. Some of the main reasons for the manager to believe that charitable organisations and social agencies should be supported include: the absence of a national government. Managers believe that they have a big role to play in the community because they believe that the people expect them to act as local national leaders in the wider community. The other reason is believed to be attributed to the Islamic Sharia (Law) where businesses are expected to pay Al-Zakat or what is known as the religious tax. (See Chapter 7).

As for the statement “family, social and financial status are necessary elements for advancement or success” only 32.8 per cent of the managers agreed with this, while over 50 per cent disagreed. The mean is 3.3 which implies that managers tend to disagree with the statement. Although, these findings may not reflect a true picture of managers beliefs the researcher has to go by what they say, rather than by what they actually believe.

However, the researcher believes that managers disagreement with the statement came about as a direct result of managers need of change which

was discussed in previous chapters and as a result of the managers dislike for the use of personal ties and connections. The majority of managers who voiced their disagreement cited the Arab poet saying: "Say not your forefathers were noble and great but pride in who you are and what you do". Other managers cited the common Arab saying "Ya Ma Fee Wardah Kallfat Shoukah" which means "A flower may breed a thorn". These sayings were cited by the managers to reflect their contempt for people who brag about their family financial or social status.

Regarding the statement "Knowing influential people is necessary in order to progress quickly inside the firm", the results in Table 15.2 indicate that only 28.8 per cent of managers believed in this statement, while the majority, 57.1 per cent were adamantly against it. Again this may seem to be overlapping with the previous statement but the overall findings indicate that managers are against the use of family social status or business ties and connections. The grand total for all the statements indicates that 47.4 per cent of the managers agreed with all statements measuring their beliefs about social matters, while only 4 per cent disagreed. The findings also indicate that nearly half of the managers were neutral about the statement. The researcher believes that such a high neutral response is caused by the managers fear of being accused by the researcher of practicing such beliefs especially when they agree with the statements regarding the use of family social ties and financial wealth to influence business matters.

The overall findings indicate that this category, social, ranked second in terms of agreement with a mean score of 2.51.

15.3.3 Length of Service (Seniority)

The findings in Table 15.2 indicated that respondents had an almost equal response to the statement “staying with one firm for the longest possible time is usually the best way to get ahead in that firm”. The results show that 40.2 per cent of subjects were in favour of the statement, while 42.9 per cent were against. However, previous findings indicated that 57.5 per cent of the managers interviewed had been in the same jobs for more than 10 years. (See Chapter ten).

As for the statement “In general, the best manager is the one who has been in his firm for the longest possible period of time” only 34.5 per cent of the managers supported the statement while 46.3 were against. Although the managers encourage employees to stay longer in their firms it was not found so with the managers themselves as only 34.5 per cent of the respondents believe that the best manager in a firm is the one who has been with the firm for the longest period of time”.

Table 15.2 indicates that only 36.7 per cent of the managers agreed with both statements while only 30.5 per cent disagreed. The grand mean is 2.86 which is the highest among other means in the table thus indicating that the average managers disagreed with the statements measuring their beliefs about seniority.

15.3.4 Individual and Group Behaviour

Interestingly, the findings in Table 15.2 indicate that the majority of respondents, 70 per cent, disagreed with the statement “Decisions made by individuals are usually of higher quality than decisions made by groups

(committees)". The mean score is 3.6 which implies that the average managers tended to disagree with the statement. This finding supports previous findings where the majority of West Bank managers were found to be consultative in their decision making styles.

Moreover, these findings indicate that West Bank managers were in favour of the use of committees despite their drawbacks such as: the taking of too much time, evading individual responsibility, and the danger of conformity and compromise which is best expressed in the old aphorism "A camel is a horse that was designed by a committee".⁽²¹⁾ Such aphorism is used to reflect the contempt managers often have for committees.

Despite the managers knowledge of the drawbacks of committees, the findings in Table 15.2 show that the majority of the managers still believe that "two heads are better than one". They believe that when individuals join together and coordinate their activities, greater and better results can be accomplished.

As for the statement, "A large organisation is a more desirable place to work than a small organisation" only 49.2 per cent of the respondents believed so while 27.7 per cent disagreed. The mean score is 2.7. However, the researcher believes that managers love for larger organisations stems from their feeling that large organisations are more prestigious, more secure, and more respected.

Finally, the findings in Table 15.2 indicate that 46.4 per cent of the managers agreed with the statement "company rules and procedures should not be broken even though managers think it is in the business interest to do

so". The results indicate that only 36.2 per cent of the subjects believed that business rules and regulations should be broken when appropriate to do so. As one female administrator from Jerusalem put it: "....company rules and procedures have been designed by human beings like us. They are not Quranic verses".

However, these findings are in contrast to the findings of Pezeshkpur in his study 'Challenge of Management in the Arab World' where he points out that Middle Eastern organisation heads, conduct their activities without regard for previously existing procedures and rules. Middle Eastern organisation members consider procedures and rules flexible and transitory.⁽²²⁾

This concludes the discussion of managers attitudes and beliefs. The following section will take these concepts, attitudes and beliefs a step further by identifying the main variables that were found to have significant impact on the managers thinking. In order to do this the researcher used a rather more sophisticated statistical technique known as discriminate function analysis or what others might call multivariate technique or multiple discriminant analysis (MDA).

15.4 Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes and Beliefs

Having already examined and discussed the managers attitudes and beliefs about the various managerial functions and themes, the researcher finds it imperative to identify the major factors which have influenced the managers responses and thinking.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher used eight characteristics of the

sample: age of manager, marital status, number of children, educational level and field of study (individual variables), and type of ownership (sector), age of firm and business size (organisational variables).

However, prior to the discussion of the major findings and in order to better conceptualise the findings the researcher finds it necessary to give a brief introduction about the statistical technique used and to define the major statistical terms which will be used quite often throughout the analysis.

15.5 Discriminant Function Analysis: An Introduction

As already mentioned, the statistical technique which was used for the purpose of this study is known as the discriminant function analysis or multivariate technique of multiple discriminant analysis (MDA). This technique is rather a relatively new but rapidly expanding approach to data analysis.⁽²³⁾ It is frequently used by practicing statisticians and is fairly well established in academic research literature.⁽²⁴⁾

Discriminate function analysis is a technique used for deciding into which category of a variable a case is most likely to fall.

The greatest advantage of discriminant function analysis over regression analysis is that the dependent variable can be a nominal measure. Discriminant analysis also has the advantage of being able to classify cases into three or more nominal categories - a task that regression analysis cannot handle. Hair *et al* (1984) argued the application of this tool as follows: "Discriminant analysis is the appropriate statistical technique when the dependent variable is categorical and the independent variables are metric.

Discriminant analysis is capable of handling either two groups or multiple groups (three or more).⁽²⁵⁾

Hair *et al* (1984) also went on to say that discriminant analysis involves deriving the linear combination of the two (or more) independent variables that will discriminate best between the priori defined groups.⁽²⁶⁾ To achieve this a statistical decision rule of maximising the between-group variance relative to the within-group variance⁽²⁷⁾- such relationship is best expressed as the ratio of the between-group to within-group variance.

The main objectives of using the discriminant analysis are:

1. To determine if statistically significant differences exist between the average score profiles of the two (or more) apriori defined groups.
2. To determine which of the independent variables account most for the differences in the average score profiles of the two or more groups.⁽²⁸⁾

For the purpose of this research the discriminant function analysis is used as an analytical predictive technique.

Some of the key terms which will be used quite often throughout the analysis include: Discriminant Weight, Eigen Value, Canonical Correlation, Wilks Lambda and Standardised Discriminant Function. In order to better conceptualise the results of the analysis, the researcher believes that a brief definition of each of these terms should be given.

Discriminant Weight: this term is referred to as a discriminant function coefficient and is calculated to maximise the differences between the groups in discriminant function scores. Independent variables with large

discriminatory power usually have small weights. The sign of the discriminant weight merely denotes that the variable makes either a positive or negative contribution.⁽²⁹⁾ However, Hedderson, in his book, *SPSSx Made Simple*, has indicated that the signs of the coefficients in discriminant analysis have no special meaning.⁽³⁰⁾

Eigen Value: in discriminant analysis an Eigen value means the between-groups variance divided by the within-groups variance, is one statistic for evaluating the worth of a discriminant analysis. An Eigen value of 0 means that the discriminant analysis had no discriminating value, whereas an Eigen value above 0.40 is considered excellent. It is important to mention that an Eigen value has no upper limit.⁽³¹⁾

Canonical Correlation: is the ratio of the between-groups variance in scores on the function to the total variance in the scores.⁽³²⁾

Wilks Lambda: this is what is called the U statistic and means the within-groups sum of squares divided by the total sum of squares. The ratio ranges from 0.0 to 1.0. However, the lower Wilks Lambda is, the better the discriminating power of the model.⁽³³⁾

Standardised discriminant function: It indicates that each variable score is standardised before it is multiplied by the coefficient. In standardising a variable score, the mean from the variable is subtracted from the score, and then the difference is divided by the standard deviation of the variables.⁽³⁴⁾

15.6 Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes

Table 15.3 provides a profile of the subjects response by five individual characteristics of the sample: age of manager, marital status, number of children, educational level, and field of study; and organisational variables such as : type of ownership (sector), age and size of firm. Only the three

variables with the largest discriminant weight will be discussed.

Planning

The results in Table 15.3 indicate that managers attitude toward planning was mostly influenced by the variables: size of the firm with a standardised discriminant coefficient (SDFC) value of 0.750, number of children with (SDFC) value of 0.628, and field of study with (SDFC) value of 0.397. These findings are not surprising because it is believed that the size of the firm has an influence on the process of planning. Drucker made this point clear when he said that the larger the organisation the more complicated the management will become. The researcher believes that larger organisations have larger activities and therefore more planning by managers is necessary.

As for the number of children variable, the researcher believes that in the Arab World in general, as it is in the West Bank in particular, a manager can only have children after marriage, therefore married managers with dependents are believed to be mature and responsible. In addition, the researcher believes that a manager with dependent children automatically develops a sense for planning, hence it is believed that they practice planning in the home which is regarded as an organisation.

Specialisation is also another factor. The researcher believes that managers are most likely to be influenced by their educational background and as a result managers with business and other related educational backgrounds have higher appreciation for planning because of the importance being placed on such function in the teaching of various courses in business. In universities, students of management for example, are normally taught about the importance of planning. It is expected that upon graduation these

students will put what they learned into practice.

Organising and Staffing

The data in Table 15.3 indicate that the managers attitudes towards organising and staffing are influenced mostly by the variables: age of manager, educational level, and field of study with the (SDFC) value of 0.771, 0.546 and -0.381 respectively.

The researcher believes that in the Arab World ageing is a sign of wisdom and experience. Dawood in his study on Iraqi managers pointed out that in the Iraqi society age is considered as an indicator of experience and wisdom.⁽³⁵⁾ Pezeshkpur (1978) also emphasised that “in the Arab World signs of old age may be helpful, grey hair for example, can represent wisdom through experience unlike the United States where the appearances of growing old are detrimental.”⁽³⁶⁾

The other two variables which discriminated mostly between managers attitude towards organising and staffing are: educational level and the field of study. These two variables are interrelated and again, it is believed that the managers with higher education and mainly with speciality in business may have a broader knowledge of management and its functions therefore they can easily feel the benefits of organising and its related function, staffing.

Moreover, and before moving on to the next factor, it is worth noting that the differences between the managers attitudes and organising and staffing are statistically significant where the Chi-square value is 36.07 with 24 degrees of freedom at 0.054 level of significance. See Table 15.4.

Communicating

The variables which discriminate most effectively between the managers in terms of communicating are: age of manager with SDFC value of 0.933, managers educational level with SDFC value of 0.358 and size of the organisation where the SDFC value was found to be -0.337. These findings are not against the researcher's expectation because previous studies already pointed out that the age of the manager has an influence on the managers and their behaviour. Muna (1980) found that older Arab executives are more autocratic than younger executives. This can be attributed to the Arab respect for age and as a result managers tend to feel that they will be respected without regard to their way of conducting business.

As for the managers education and their attitude towards communication it is always believed university education promotes knowledge and thinking. Another reason could be that managers with higher educational level might have a strong belief that communication in all its forms might increase the commitment and motivation among employees.

The third variable which has a large discriminant weight is the size of firm. The researcher believes that larger organisations might have more activities and therefore managers sometimes depend on committees in their conduct of business. It is also believed that larger organisations have many chains of command. Along with this, many large organisations perform what has been called management by exception. Management by exception means that recurring decisions should be handled in a routine manner by lower level managers, where as problems involving unusual matters should

Table 15.3 Main Variables Affecting Managers Attitudes Towards Various Managerial Functions

Variables (Individual and Organisational)	Managerial Function				
	Planning	Organising / Staffing	Communicating	Leading	Motivating
	Function	Function	Function	Function	Function
Age of Manager	-0.059	0.771 *	0.933 *	-0.471 *	-0.069
Marital Status	0.147	0.006	-0.299	0.057	-0.047
Number of children	-0.628 *	0.064	0.314	0.133	-0.454 *
Educational level	-0.064	0.546 *	0.358 *	0.592 *	0.656 *
Field of study	0.397 *	-0.381 *	-0.071	-0.183	0.253
Sector (ownership)	-0.375	0.321	-0.216	-0.124	-0.321
Age of firm	0.198	0.055	0.065	-0.041	0.995 *
Size of firm	0.750 *	0.280	-0.337 *	0.701 *	-0.063

* variables contributing more to the discriminating power of the function. The higher the score the more contribution has the variable. the range will be between (-1) and (+1)

** the sign (-) merely denotes that the variable makes either a positive or negative contribution.

Table 15.4 Managers Attitudes by Managerial Functions

Function	Eigenvalue	PCT of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks Lambda	Chi-square	D.F.	SIG
Planning	0.082	52.2	0.276	0.857	26.04	32	0.761
Organising/staffing	0.164	72.9	0.375	0.808	36.07	24	0.054 *
Communicating	0.057	55.2	0.233	0.903	17.30	16	0.366
Leading	0.090	61.29	0.288	0.867	24.24	24	0.447
Motivating	0.082	62.82	0.276	0.879	21.74	24	0.594

* significance

be referred to higher levels.⁽³⁷⁾ Management by exception is common in many large American Corporations where the President of a company will delegate authority to a branch manager, so that the manager can use his best judgement in running the division. The president continuously monitors performance, and he manages only when the branch operates exceptionally poorly. The size of organisation may also have a negative effect on communication hence in large organisations the distance between top management and subordinates is sometimes long therefore subordinates have to follow proper chains of command in their upward communication.

Leading

Table 15.3 indicates that managers attitudes toward leading are influenced mostly by the variables: size of organisation, educational level, and age of managers with (SDFC) values of 0.701, 0.592 and -0.471 respectively.

To explain the above results again it might be useful to mention that in larger organisations managers might find it more appropriate to delegate authority to branch managers and to apply the management by exception principle. In larger organisations the chains of command are usually long, unlike smaller organisations where managers are sometimes closer to subordinates.

As for the educational level it is believed that education may have an influence on the style of leadership. Managers with higher education (university and college) are believed to have gained a broader knowledge of the way businesses should be conducted. Previous findings already indicated that managers with higher education are more consultative.

The age of the manager is another variable with a large influence on the attitude of managers towards leading. This finding might be overlapping with other findings where it was found that in the Arab World older managers are more respected because their age reflects wisdom through knowledge and practice and as a result older managers in the Arab World take it for granted that they will be respected. Therefore, Muna for example, in his study indicated that older managers in the Arab World are more autocratic.

Motivating

Interestingly the findings in Table 15.4 indicate that managers attitude toward motivation is influenced mostly by the variables: educational level with SDFC value of 0.656, age of firm with a value of 0.495 for the SDFC and the number of children where the value for SDFC was found to be -0.454.

To explain the above results it might be useful to mention that managers with more education are sometimes more ambitious and are more motivated to reach their full potential. As for the age of the firm, it is believed that older firms are sometimes more prestigious to work for and thus help the managers to fulfill their esteem needs.

As for the number of children, it is believed that in the Arab World managers or people with dependents are more motivated to work and this is connected to the Arab culture where it is considered dishonourable for a father with dependent children not to seek employment especially because pension schemes and child benefit programmes are alien to West Bank culture with the exception of Jerusalem. However, the number of children

as indicated in Table 15.3 may have a negative impact on managers attitude towards motivation where it is believed that dependents make it sometimes more difficult for a manager to obtain a prestigious and better paid job abroad. To given an example, an Arab manager sometimes gives up all the benefits he might get from obtaining a job in a foreign country just for the sake of his daughters and the maintaining of their honour.

15.7 Variables Affecting Managers Beliefs

The following section of this chapter will be dedicated to the discussion of the major variables with the largest discriminating weight on manager beliefs. Table 15.5 brings out the striking findings. However, only the highest three variables with the largest discriminating weight will be discussed and analysed.

Managers Relationships (i.e. with Employees)

The findings in Table 15.5 indicate that managers beliefs about employees are most influenced by the variables: type of ownership (sector) with SDFC value of 0.731, age of manager and managers field of study with SDFC values of 0.649 and -0.371 respectively.

As for the type of ownership, it is believed that managers of private firms in the West Bank might have more concern for employees because of managers concern about the image and reputation of their business and because of the high expectation placed on managers of private firms by the wider community. Unlike administrators of public firms who are sometimes restricted in terms of their relationship with employees since public firms have written roles and regulations which managers have to

Table 15.5 Main Variables Affecting Managers Beliefs About Various Managerial Themes

Variables (Individual and Organisational)	Categories			
	Managers Relationships (i.e.employees)	Social	Length of Service (Seniority)	Organisation, Group and Individual Behaviour
	Function	Function	Function	Function
Age of Manager	0.649 *	0.205	-0.597 *	-0.056
Marital Status	0.051	0.259	-0.212	0.770*
Number of Children	- 0.130	-0.616 *	-0.151	-0.747*
Educational Level	0.140	0.895 *	0.306 *	0.019
Field of Study	-0.371 *	-0.266	0.474 *	-0.187
Sector (ownership)	0.731 *	-0.068	-0.071	0.335
Age of Firm	0.028	0.078	0.232	0.592*
Size of Firm	0.112	0.292 *	0.249	-0.173

* variables contributing more to the discriminating power of the function. The higher the score the more contribution has the variable. the range will be between (-1) and (+1)

** the sign (-) merely denotes that the variable makes either a positive or negative contribution.

adhere to, unlike private firms where rules and regulations lie in the hands of the managers and can be changed whenever he/she feels appropriate to do so.

As for managers age, it is believed that older people are more mature in their thinking and in their behaviour. Therefore higher expectations are placed upon older people because of their age and as a result of old people acting as "go between" in the community. As for the age of manager and his/her way of conducting business it was found that in the Arab World older managers are more autocratic than younger managers (38) because older managers take it for granted that they will be respected regardless of their managerial style. The last variable with a large discriminant weight is the managers field of study. This finding is not surprising, because it is believed that respondents with management education background have a high appreciation for people *viz* employees. While pursuing their higher education, management students are sometimes taught of the importance of people and as some writers said, employees are companies greatest assets. (39)

Moreover, and before moving on to the discussion of other factors it is worth noting that the differences between managers beliefs and their relationships with employees are statistically significant where the Chi-square value is 32.17 with 16 degrees of freedom at 0.009 level of significance. (See Table 15.6).

Social Beliefs

The findings in Table 15.5 indicate that the variables which discriminate

most effectively between the managers in terms of their social beliefs are: managers educational level with SDFC value of 0.895, number of children with -0.616 for the SDFC value and size of firm with SDFC value of 0.292.

To explain these variables, it is believed that in the Arab World, managers education has a significant effect on his/her social status and as a result many unions and social organisations require certain levels of education as a condition for their memberships.

The number of children is also another variable with a large discriminant weight. It is believed that a managers ability to be sociable is sometimes influenced by the size of his family whereas children and family matters stand in the way of socialisation. As a result, managers or government officials resign in order to be able to spend more time with his/her family as having children sometimes helps one to be more sociable. For example, in the Arab World and from observation, people with dependents find themselves involved in social activities and visits just because of their children. This is because in the Arab society married people are more acceptable in married peoples homes than single and unmarried male persons.

Referring to the size of the firm, it is believed that managers of larger organisations are more known to the community. Therefore their chances of being social may increase due to the size of the firm they manage. This also can be explained in the light of the absence of a national government where managers as a result consider themselves temporary leaders. Therefore they get the focus and the attention of local and foreign media

Table 15.6 Managers Beliefs by Managerial Themes

Belief	Eigenvalue	PCT of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks Lambda	Chi-square	D.F.	SIG
Management Relations (e.g. with employees)	0.132	66.74	0.342	0.828	32.17	16	0.009 *
Organisation and Group; and Individual Behaviour	0.084	61.71	0.279	0.875	22.53	24	0.547
Social	0.157	79.57	0.368	0.830	31.56	24	0.138
Length of Service (Seniority)	0.118	60.67	0.325	0.829	31.78	32	0.477

* significance

mainly because of their status and role in the community.

Length of Service (Seniority)

Interestingly, the findings in Table 15.5 indicate that West Bank managers beliefs about seniority are influenced mostly by the variables: age of manager with SDFC, value of -0.597, field of study and educational level of manager, with SDFC values of 0.474 and 0.306 respectively.

To discuss the above findings the researcher believes that there is a relationship and resemblance between the age and length of service. As for the field of study and the educational level it is believed that managers who work in jobs which are regarded to be more related to their field of study and are more compatible with their levels of education are more likely to stay in their jobs than others, hence they believe that their jobs are more challenging and give them a sense of personal accomplishment.

Individual and Group Behaviour

Looking at Table 15.5 we will notice that the variables that discriminate mostly between the managers in terms of their individual and group behaviour are: marital status with SDFC value of 0.770, number of children with SDFC value of -0.747, and age of firm where the value of SDFC was found to be 0.592.

To explain the above results the researcher believes that the first two variables, marital status and number of children of managers are closely interrelated. The researcher believes that in both cases a manager is believed to be more settled and therefore he/she will look for an organisation that is

more secure and the one which will provide the best benefits and retirement plans and this can be mainly provided by public organisations. However, it is believed that the number of children may have a negative influence on the managers belief and behaviour where the manager with a dependent is sometimes forced to act in one way or another just because of pressures from his children. For example, a manager without dependents might find his salary to be adequate. While on the other hand a manager with dependents may sometimes shift jobs in a hunt for better pay so as to be able to meet the demands of his family. As for the age of firms, the researcher believes that older firms are more prestigious and therefore managers when joining old organisations they tend to have a sense of security and prestige therefore fulfilling their security and social needs.

This concludes our discussion of the major variables that have the largest discriminating weight on managers attitudes and beliefs. The following section will be devoted to the discussion of various needs for managers as already appeared in the findings of this study.

15.8 Need Importance and Need Satisfaction

A review of the literature reveals few studies dealing with cross-cultural managerial motivations.⁽⁴⁰⁾ However, it appears that culture has an affect on the hierarchy of needs for managers. Yet regardless of their culture, managers all over the world still consider the needs of self actualisation and autonomy as important.⁽⁴¹⁾

15.9 Need Importance

To understand the results to be presented more fully, it is necessary to outline the basic methodology used for this purpose.

Managers need importance was measured by the adoption of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory but with some minor modification. No questions about biological needs were asked plus a division of Maslow's Esteem Need into Esteem and Autonomy (see questionnaire). The five needs investigated by the researcher are listed in their theoretical order of priority under each of the five headings, as follows:

Security

- have the security of knowing that you will be able to work for your firm as long as you wish.

Social

- live in area desirable to you and your family
- work with people who cooperate well with one another
- have a good working relationship with your subordinates
- have a job which gives you sufficient time for your personal and family life.

Esteem

- work in a firm which is regarded in your country as successful and acceptable.

Autonomy

- have a considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job.

Self Actualisation

- have a challenging job from which you get a personal sense of accomplishment.

For each of the eight items on the questionnaire, each respondent was asked to choose the number that fully represents his/her need on a five point Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 ("utmost importance" to "not important").

The lower the score was ranked the more important the need. The results were computed for each of the items. (See Table 15.7).

Table 15.7 Managers Need Importance and Satisfaction

Need	Need Importance N = 177		Need Satisfaction N = 177	
	Mean Score* \bar{X}	Rank	Mean Score** \bar{X}	Rank
Security	2.0	(5)	2.2	(5)
Social	1.46	(1)	1.68	(1)
Esteem	1.7	(2)	2.06	(2)
Autonomy	1.9	(4)	2.07	(3)
Self actualisation	1.8	(3)	2.18	(4)

* Lower Scores indicate greater importance. Lower rank indicates greater importance.

** Lower Scores indicate greater satisfaction. Lower rank indicates greater satisfaction.

Scales used:

Need importance: 1 = utmost importance
2 = very important
3 = moderate importance
4 = little importance
5 = no importance

Need satisfaction: 1 = very satisfied
2 = satisfied
3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
4 = dissatisfied
5 = very dissatisfied

Scores for an individual respondent for each category were obtained by averaging the responses to all of the items in a given category. For example, for the social need category, the responses to the four items in that category were summed and divided by four to obtain an individual's score. In this way scores from one need category could be compared directly to those from another category despite the fact that different number of items were used to measure the social category.⁽⁴²⁾ (See Table 15.7).

15.10 Discussion of Major Findings

The findings in Table 15.7 indicate that social needs seem to be the most important, followed closely by esteem, self actualisation, autonomy and security. While social need was considered most important it was also the first most satisfied.

Interestingly, these findings indicate that Arab managers needs vary from one culture to another. For example, Badawy (1980) in his study on 248 Arab executives from six different Arab countries: Saudi, Arabia, Kuwait, Abu Dhabi, Bahrain, Oman and the United Arab Emirates found that self actualisation was ranked the most important need of Middle Eastern executives,⁽⁴³⁾ unlike West Bank managers who ranked social needs as their most important. See Table 15.8 for a comparison of the findings of the two major studies.

The researcher, attributes this finding to several reasons:

First: The unstable political situation in the West Bank is thought to be the primary reason for such difference in needs where in the West Bank managers look up to their organisations in order to help them fulfill their social needs due to the absence of a national government in the West Bank to safeguard the interests of its people.

Second: It is believed that the Arab executives from the various countries have their social needs fully satisfied. Therefore, their highest motivation stems from their individual's need to fulfill their obligations towards themselves. As a result, self actualisation came on the top of their list of need motivation, unlike managers in the West Bank who placed social needs on the top of their list of needs. The researcher believes that the main

reason for this is that West Bank managers have a strong feeling of insecurity. They feel threatened and insecure at most times. This conclusion is supported by the following incidents which took place during the data collection.

- Husam Taweel, Mayor of Al-Birch Municipality was seriously stabbed by a masked man as he was preparing to enter his office.
- Mayor Hanna Al-Atrash of Beit Sahour was seriously beaten by masked men as he was driving to his office.
- Faisal Al-Husseini, Chairman of the Arab Studies Society, Jerusalem, was arrested for a period of over six months on grounds of political incitements and was accused by the Israeli authorities as being an active member of the clandestine leadership of the uprising.
- Dr. Amin Khatib, Chairman of the Charitable Societies Confederation, Jerusalem, was shot by Israeli soldiers after demonstrations broke out in the old city of Jerusalem and,
- Ez-Eddin Al-Aryan, Chairman of Balsam Pharmaceutical Company in Ramallah was placed under administrative arrest for six months on grounds of political activities in the region.

These are just some of the examples which demonstrate that West Bank managers are insecure and as the results show, security was the least satisfied need.

These findings can be well explained by Herzberg when he pointed out in his Hygiene Theory of Motivation that an individual's relation to his work can very much determine his success or failure. In his theory, Herzberg believes that removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job like salary, status, security etc., does not necessarily mean causing satisfaction.

Therefore, in his theory Herzberg indicated that the opposite of “satisfaction” is “no satisfaction” while the opposite of “dissatisfaction” is “no dissatisfaction”.⁽⁴⁴⁾

Table 15.8 Comparison of Findings of Badawy and Abuznaid (present study) with regard to Arab Managers Need Importance

Badawy (1980) Arab Executives Need Importance rank *	Need	Abuznaid (present study) West Bank Managers Need Importance rank *
4	Security	5
2	Social	1
3	Esteem	2
5	Autonomy	4
1	Self actualisation	3

* Lower ranks indicate higher need importance

Third: The Arabs need for affection, sense of belonging and acceptance, is believed to be more hotly pursued than financial gains. This finding is supported by Badawy where he found that social needs were ranked second to the most important.

Finally, the researcher believes that these findings could be a direct result of the West Bank close-knit community, their obsession with the importance of honour and reputation, and as a result of the teachings of Islam, where the Islamic Sharia (Law) urges all Muslims to be friendly and helpful, and as some writers put it: “Islam: A way of Life”.⁽⁴⁵⁾ What is more interesting is that these findings, lent strong support to Hofstede’s findings, where he concluded that different needs rank highest in difficult cultures, and therefore it is naive to expect American theories to apply automatically intact in significantly different cultures.⁽⁴⁶⁾

15.11 Need Satisfaction

To measure respondents need satisfaction, each manager interviewed was asked to respond to the same eight items which were used in identifying managers and need importance. For each of the items, the manager was asked to choose the number that fully represented his/her degree of satisfaction with each need using a five point Likert type rating scale ranging from 1 to 5 ("very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied"). The lower the mean score the more satisfied is the manager. (See Table 15.7).

Looking at Table 15.7 we will find that West Bank Managers tended to be satisfied with all the needs investigated but to a varying degree. Although social need was considered most important, it was also considered the most satisfied need, followed by esteem, autonomy, self actualisation and security. Unlike Badawy (1980), in his study on the Arab executives, where he found that autonomy was considered the least satisfied need, followed by self actualisation, esteem, social needs and security. ⁽⁴⁷⁾ (See Table 15.9).

Looking at Table 15.9 we will see that although security was ranked as the least important need, it was also considered the least satisfied need. These results are not surprising in the light of the volatile political situation in the West Bank where managers jobs fate lie in the hand of the military governor of the district. Therefore, managers and administrators are sometimes forced to leave their jobs by military order on grounds that they or members of their families have been engaged in activities which are considered to be hostile and cause a threat to Israel National Security.

**Table 15.9 Managers Need Dissatisfaction Comparison.
Badawy (1980) and Abuznaid (present study)**

Badawy (1980) Arab Executives Need Satisfaction rank *	Need	Abuznaid (present study) West Bank Managers Need Satisfaction rank *
1	Security	5
2	Social	1
3	Esteem	2
5	Autonomy	3
4	Self Actualisation	4

* High ranks indicate high need dissatisfaction

15.12 Summary

The findings in this chapter provided us with a better understanding of the attitudes and beliefs of West Bank managers. Managers beliefs and attitudes towards certain managerial functions and themes were all examined in this chapter. It was evident from the findings that West Bank managers place stronger emphasis on employees and on communication and less on other functions like planning and forecasting. West Bank managers as a result were considered as fatalistic, despite the fact that many of them see no sense in planning only because of the volatile political situation and the daily uncertainty that renders any plan, no matter how good it is, obsolete. However, the researcher stressed that due to the daily instability in that region, West Bank manager should put more emphasis on planning and forecasting so as to reduce uncertainty.

This chapter was beneficial in pointing out the main variables (individual and organisational) that have an impact on managers attitudes and beliefs. However only the variables with the largest discriminant weight were analysed and discussed.

The final part of the chapter was dedicated to the discussion of the various needs and needs satisfaction of the managers. The findings indicated that social needs was considered most important followed by esteem, self actualisation, autonomy, and security. As for the managers need satisfaction, it was evident that West Bank managers were satisfied with all the needs outlined but to a varying degree. Although social need was considered most important, it was also found most satisfied. Finally this chapter has been beneficial in drawing a comparison of the major findings between this study and other similar related studies such as that of Badawy, Pezeshkpur, Murrel, Muna, Dawood and others.

All in all, it is clear from the material presented in this chapter that culture does play a significant role in the attitudes, beliefs and needs of the managers.

CHAPTER 15

Endnotes

1. Bentham Jeremy "An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation" in English Philosophers from Bacon to Mill (Ed.) E.A. Burt (Random House 1939), p. 791.
2. Blair C. Kolasa, *op cit.*, p. 386.
3. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 13.
4. Ibid., p.125.
5. Richard T. Antoun, "Anthropology" in the Study of the Middle East: Research and Scholarship in The Humanities and Social Sciences (Ed.) Leonard Binder (New York: John Wiley and Sons 1976), p. 180.
6. S.A. Zahra "Egyptian Management at the Cross-Roads", Management International Review, 1980), 20:3.
7. Kenneth L. Murrel "A Cultural Analysis of the Egyptian Management Environment" in Philip Harris and Gerald Meelin (Eds.) Innovation in Global Consultation. (Washington DC) International Consultation Foundation, 1979), pp. 105-119.
8. Pierce, Middle East, p.108, quoting Hamed Ammar, Growing Up in An Egyptian Village (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul 1954), p. 193.
9. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 272.
10. Ibid.
11. Joseph L. Massie, *op cit.*, p. 64.
12. Ibid.

13. Keith Davis, *op cit.*, p.399.
14. J.H. Horne and T. Lupton "The Work Activities of Middle Managers".
Journal of Management Studies Vol. 1. (1965), pp. 15-33.
15. Stephen P. Robbins, *op cit.*, p.117.
16. Terence R. Mitchell "Motivation: New Directions for Theory, Research
and Practice". Academy of Management Reviews 7. (January
1982): pp.80-88.
17. Stephen Robbins, *op cit.*, p.28.
18. Robert Kreitner, *op cit.*, p. 320.
19. Milton Rokeach, *op cit.*, p.125.
20. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p. 48.
21. David R. Hamptonn *et al* Organisational Behaviour and the Practice of
Management, Third Edition, (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Firesman
and Company, 1978), p. 243.
22. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p. 55.
23. Joseph F. Hair Jr. *et al* Multivariate Data Analysis with readings (New
York: Macmillan Publishing Co. 1984), p.6.
24. Ibid.
25. Ibid.
26. Ibid.
27. Ibid.
28. Paul E. Green *et al* . Research for Marketing Decision. (Englewood
Cliffs: Prentice Hall Inc. 1975).
29. Nie, N., Hull, C., Bent, D., Neiswonger, M. Statistical Package for
the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw Hill, 1975).
30. John Hedderson, SPSSx Made Simple, (Belmont, California:
Wadsworth Publishing Co. 1987).

31. Ibid.
32. Ibid.
33. Ibid.
34. Ibid., p. 132.
35. Isam J. Dawood, Iraqi Production Managers: Analysis of the Characteristics and Demands of their Job. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Glasgow, 1987, p. 271.
36. Changiz Pezeshkpur, *op cit.*, p. 50.
37. Joseph L. Massie, *op cit.*, p. 67.
38. Farid Muna, *op cit.*, p.54.
39. See Peter Drucker Management: Tasks and Responsibilities and Muhammad Hisham Jabr, The Marketing of the Islamic Banks Services in Jordan. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Glasgow, 1990, p. 110.
40. M.K. Badawy "Styles of Mideastern Management". California Management Review (Spring 1980). Vol. XXII No. 2. p.51.
41. Ibid., p.51.
42. See Mason Haire *et al* Managerial Thinking: An International Study (New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc. 1966), p. 79.
43. M.K. Badawy, *op cit.*, p. 41.
44. See Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (New York: Staples Press, 1966) and Frederick Herzberg *et al*, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959).
45. See Philip Hitti "Islam: A Way of Life" (Minneapolis: Oxford University Press 1970).

46. Geert Hofstede "Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?" Organisational Dynamics Vol.9, No.1 (Summer 1980) p. 54-56.
47. M.K. Badawy, *op cit.*, p. 55.

CHAPTER 16

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

"When you say you know everything, it is only then you start to become naive and ignorant"

"Complacency is the enemy of progress"

(Ronald Reagan, former US President,
speech at graduation ceremony, USA,
1985-1986).

16.1 Introduction

In previous chapters we have explored numerous topics at various levels of analysis. The topics discussed ranged from organisational to social and individual. The main purpose was to increase the readers knowledge of West Bank management attitude , beliefs and behaviour. The purpose of this chapter, however, is twofold: first, to present a review of the main objectives of the study, and to give a summary of the main findings as found from the data analysis. Second, to draw the implications of the study and to present sound suggestions and recommendations for future research.

16.2 Importance of the Study

As its principal objective, the study represents an exploratory examination of the attitudes and beliefs of West Bank managers in the West Bank environment. Within the framework of this general objective this study aims to examine the following aspects:

First: the personal characteristics of Arab managers in the West Bank. Managers characteristics, such as age, sex, marital status, level of education, languages spoken, and length of service will be examined.

Second: Business characteristics. The study aims to look at the various characteristics of businesses which managers operate. Business characteristics will include the size, age and type of ownership.

Third: The environment in which managers work. This objective aims to discover the main exogenous and endogenous pressures encountered by managers and to find out the main attributes expected of managers by their community, organisations and employees.

Fourth: To examine managers decision making style and their interpersonal relationships with particular attention to mediation, nepotism and bribery.

Fifth: To examine managers attitudes and beliefs towards jobs, time and life insurance, and toward socio-cultural and technological change.

Sixth: To examine the attitudes and beliefs of managers towards various managerial functions and themes. Managerial functions include planning, forecasting, organising, staffing, communicating, motivating and leading. On the other hand managerial themes include: management relationships (i.e. with employees), tenure, social, and group and individual behaviour.

Seventh: To determine managers need importance and need satisfaction.

Eighth: To compare and contrast the results found with those of previous and related research.

Looking at these various objectives one can say that this study is regarded as the main significant study of management in the West Bank. The importance of this study stems from the following points:

- (i) It is the first of its kind in the West Bank. The majority of managers interviewed confessed to this fact and therefore expressed their interest in the study through cooperation.
- (ii) The study is considered to be a continuation of the studies already existing about Arab management. Although, these studies have been carried out in different political and social economic climates. As a result this study helps pave the way for future research in this area.
- (iii) Due to its nature, the study will help fill the knowledge gap already existing in the literature about human behaviour in organisations.
- (iv) Further contribution from the present study may emerge from its attempt to provide an evidential base to the existing literature on human attitudes, beliefs and in its attempt to draw a comparative analysis of major findings with findings of other relevant studies.

Apart from the survey and in order to explore the attitudes and beliefs of West Bank managers within the West Bank culture, the researcher conducted an extensive literature review, and made a substantial use of British Library publications. Several United States thesis catalogued by University microfilm international were consulted and referred to in the study. University and colleges indices and bookshelves here and abroad were consulted. Substantial use was made of Palestinian public and municipal libraries. Invaluable and continuous advice was given to the researcher by his supervisor throughout the study.

At the end of this extensive search and literature review a questionnaire was developed for the purpose of the study. A total of 200 managers and administrators were drawn for the sample in 200 different firms and

institutions. However, due to unforeseen difficulties only 177 managers and administrators agreed to participate in the study thus rendering a total response rate of 88.5 per cent.

16.3 Methods of Analysis

After the completion of data collection, all data was transferred to the computer data bank at the University of Glasgow. All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical package for social sciences. Valuable advice was generously provided by statisticians at both Glasgow and An-Najah National University as to the appropriate methods of data analysis. As to the testing of whether a relationship exists between the attitudes and beliefs of managers and the variables (individual and organisational) and between different questions, the Chi-square test of significance was used to check for association. A rather more sophisticated statistical technique, Multivariate Discriminant Analysis (MDA) was also performed in order to determine the variable which had the most discriminating power on managers attitudes and beliefs.

16.4 Conclusions

This section will be devoted to a discussion of the major findings of the study with regard to the various topics investigated. However, the conclusions of each topic will be discussed one at a time.

16.4.1. Sample Characteristics

- (a) The study found that more than 50 per cent of the managers are between 30 and 49 years of age with more than 28 per cent falling between 40 and 49 years. The average age of managers is 45.2 years. Different studies indicate almost the same average. For

example, Sulieman indicated that the average age of Iraqi managers is 46.7 years⁽¹⁾ while Clements in his study on 646 managers in the United Kingdom indicated the average age of managers as 46 years although it is 49 years for senior managers. In other countries, the average age is even higher.⁽²⁾ For example it is between 55 and 64 in the United States⁽³⁾ and 55 to 65 or more in Japan.⁽⁴⁾ On the contrary, in Libya the average age of managers is much lower at 34 years.⁽⁵⁾

- (b) The data reveal that more than 90 per cent of the managers in the sample are born in the West Bank and Gaza with the vast majority, 88.7 per cent, born in the West Bank. This finding indicates that the vast majority of managers in the sample are not new to the West Bank environment. It is their place of birth. Only 4 per cent of the managers were born in the occupied Arab land of 1948. The remaining managers were born in various Arab countries and in South America.
- (c) Regarding managers sex, the findings indicate that 97.7 per cent of the managers are males whilst only 7.3 per cent are females. The total ratio of women employed in the firm and organisation covered in this study, is found to be 23 per cent. This ratio is considered to be relatively high if compared with Jordan, for example, where the ratio of women in the total working force is 10.9.⁽⁶⁾ With this finding in mind, we can conclude that changes in the attitude towards women in employment have already taken place in the West Bank.
- (d) Our findings indicate that 88.7 per cent of the managers in the sample are married with only 10.2 per cent single and 1.1 per cent divorced.
- (e) As for the number of dependents, the data reveal that 36.7 per cent of

married managers have 4 to 6 children. The mean number of children is 3.5.

- (f) With regard to managers education, the data reveal that 67.8 per cent are university graduates. The outcome of the findings indicate that 7.3 per cent of the managers have graduated from vocational schools, 14.7 per cent received high school diplomas, while only 10.2 per cent have less than high school education. This finding implies that West Bank managers are on the average educated people.
- (g) As for the managers field of study, the results demonstrate that 31.1 per cent of the managers with higher education studied business and other related fields, 14.1 per cent studied literature, 10 per cent pure science, 7.9 per cent graduated with engineering degrees, 7.3 per cent studies medicine, while the remaining managers graduated from agricultural colleges and law schools.
- (h) With relation to the number of languages managers speak, our findings indicate that 91 per cent of the subjects are bilingual of whom 32.8 per cent speak more than two languages. The most common languages spoken by managers are English, Hebrew, Spanish and French, in addition to their native language, Arabic.
- (i) Regarding managers training, the data indicate that 59.9 per cent of the managers attended training programmes of whom 35.8 per cent attended training programmes in the West Bank, 27.3 per cent in the United States and Europe, 25.5 per cent in Jordan, while 11.3 per cent attended training programmes inside Israel. With this finding in mind we can conclude that West Bank managers are internally motivated.
- (j) With respect of father's occupation, our findings indicate that 40.1 per cent of the managers in the sample are sons of merchants, 20.3 per

cent are sons of farmers, 18.6 per cent are sons of professional men, 15.3 per cent are sons of government personnel, whilst only 5.6 per cent are sons of craftsmen. From this finding we come to the conclusion that West Bankers like the rest of the Arabs, have a dislike for manual work. The conclusion, however, is already supported by previous findings, where Patai for example, concludes Arab society despises manual labour in contrast with the Americans or Europeans where people quite willingly engage in tinkering around the house and where they practice a 'do it yourself' attitude".⁽⁷⁾

- (k) The findings for managers length of service indicate that 75 per cent of the managers in the sample have been working with their present firm for not more than 19 years. The data also reveal that 16.9 per cent of the managers maintained their same jobs for over 20 years, while only 7.3 per cent work in the same jobs for over 30 years. The mean length of service is 12.94 years as compared with 11.54 years for Iraqi production managers.⁽⁸⁾
- (l) As for the organisational characteristics the data reveal the following:
 - 1. nearly 57 per cent of the managers in the sample are working in the public sector. Only 43.5 per cent are in the private sector. This finding is against the researcher's expectation but it is understood in light of the closures caused by the general strikes in the West Bank which affect the private sector more than the public sector.
 - 2. Regarding the size of firm or organisation, the data show that 48.6 per cent of the managers are working in medium size organisations (10-49 employees), 34 per cent work in large size organisations (50 and more employees) while 17.5 per cent of managers are working in small size organisations (less than 10 employees). It is

worth noting that this type of classification is appropriate for the West Bank and may not apply to industrialised countries. This classification is supported to some extent by other findings where it is discovered that the West Bank and Gaza consist mainly of small and medium sized workshops, 92.3 per cent of which employ between one and 9 workers. (9)

3. As for age of organisation, the data reveal that 42 per cent of the managers and administrators work in firms and organisations which have been in existence for less than 19 years, 20.9 per cent of the organisations for 20 - 29 years, whilst 24.9 per cent have been in existence for over 30 but less 49 years. Interestingly, only 12.4 per cent of the organisations in the study are over 50 years old. With this finding in mind we can conclude that only 42 per cent of the organisations in the study have been established during the Israeli occupation and are less than 20 years old, taking into account that the occupation has now been in existence for 23 years.
4. Regarding the number of female managers employed our findings reveal that 51 per cent of the firms in the sample have less than 5 female managers on their staff, 4.5 per cent employ more than 5 female managers, while the remaining firms do not have any female managers on their staff at all.

16.4.2. Findings Pertaining to Management and the Environment

With respect to management and the environment, the data has provided us with distinctive characteristics of West Bank environment and the businesses operating in it. It was evident from the findings that West Bank

managers operate under various types of pressure which seemed to have a direct impact on management behaviour and practices. The findings reveal that West Bank managers suffer from exogenous and endogenous pressures. Exogenous pressures include socio-cultural, business, community and occupation. While endogenous pressures include those faced by managers within their organisation and which management can control.

As for the socio-cultural pressures the data indicate that 51.5 per cent of those who suffer complain of the low value of time, 12.1 per cent suffer from advertising and marketing constraints, 7.9 per cent suffer from the envy (evil eye) pressure, 7.3 per cent suffer from the lack of industrial mentality, 6.1 per cent suffer from the continued demand for money by the society, while the remaining managers complain of lack of technicians, low cultural level of the people, lack of awareness of nature of work performed, and peoples resistance to change.

On the other hand, occupier's pressures include: occupier's discriminatory policies 69.4 per cent, marketing problems 8.1 per cent, excess taxation 5.6 per cent, low tourism level 4.8 per cent, and other pressures such as military censorship, difficulty getting to work, and inability to communicate with the outside world.

Concerning the business community pressures, the data analysis reveal that sufferers complain of the importance of reputation in the community 26.0 per cent, social visits at the office 22.5 per cent, top man syndrome 13.3 per cent, fusion of business with social and personal life 10.4 per cent, higher expectation of success 9.2 per cent, nepotism 9.2 per cent, and people's

lack of respect of business rules and regulations 9.2 per cent.

With regard to the endogenous pressures it was found that 42.5 per cent of the managers who suffer from such pressure have complained of financial problems, 15.0 per cent complain of the lack of responsibility on the part of employees, absenteeism 7.1 per cent, lack of training programmes 5.5 per cent, lack of skilled employees and technicians 3.1 per cent, and other pressures like lack of initiative by employees, lack of authority and lack of cooperation between employees.

These pressures seem to have a direct bearing on managers. For example, it was found that 53.1 per cent of managers sometimes become nervous at work, while 6.2 per cent usually become nervous and 2.3 per cent always become nervous at work. This finding is a clear indication of managers physical stress as a result of the enormous pressures faced.

With respect to the managers and the main attributes expected of them, it was found that 55.9 per cent of the managers believe that their country expects them to fulfill their national duties by helping the country become less dependent on the occupiers. 17.5 per cent of the managers believe that their community expects them to play an intermediary role, 14.1 per cent think that their community expects them to help improve the scientific and cultural level of people, while 12.5 per cent of the manager think that linking the business with the community is all that is expected of them. As for women, it was found that the vast majority of women managers participating in the survey, indicated that the main attributes expected of them by their community are: National Duty 61.5 per cent and the help in the

improvement and enhancement of local peoples scientific and cultural level, 38.5 per cent.

With regard to the attributes expected of managers by their organisation the data reveal that 62.1 per cent of the managers agreed that being effective managers is all that their organisations want, 16.4 per cent believe that their organisations expect them to be the motors that keep the organisation running, 13.3 per cent believe they are expected to be effective decision makers, while 10.2 per cent believe that writing articles for local newspapers and media is all that is expected of them by their organisation.

Concerning the attributes expected of managers by their employees, the findings reveal the following:

Good working conditions 14.2 per cent, good wages 39.0 per cent, help employees in personal matters 19.2 per cent, and providing employees with good training programmes 0.6 per cent. These are the main attributes expected of managers as they see it. However, these attributes may not give a complete picture of the genuine feeling of managers, hence previous findings indicate that managers sometimes miss the mark with this regard.⁽¹⁰⁾

As for the managers and their views regarding managers success, all respondents interviewed pointed out that for any manager to succeed he must be faithful and committed to work 36.7 per cent. have a leading personality 28.3 per cent, be capable and show self confidence 22.0 and 13.0 per cent respectively.

16.4.3. Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Decision Making and Managers Interpersonal Styles

The analysis of the data reveal that management in the West Bank displays the same diversity that distinguishes the region as a whole.

As for the managers and their decision making style, it was so apparent that the consultative style of decision making is the most widely spread in the West Bank. One possible explanation for that could be due to the religious values and the effect of other variables like managers education where the Chi-square value was found to be 10.9 with 3 degrees of freedom at 99 per cent level of confidence, and the size of organisation where the Chi-square value was found to be 13.7 with 6 degrees of freedom at 0.03 level of significance. Surprisingly, the age of managers has no significant contribution to the variation in their decision style since the Chi-square value is 6.7 with 3 degrees of freedom at 0.35 level of significance.

With respect to the managers and their methods of obtaining their jobs the outcomes of the results indicate that:

1. Almost half of the managers obtained their present jobs through normal placement methods.
2. A small proportion of managers, 11.9 per cent, obtained their jobs through family contacts, 7.3 per cent are appointed to carry out the job, while 6.8 per cent are elected.

As for the use of irregular practices in conducting businesses the findings show the following results:

1. The vast majority of managers, 93.8 per cent, believe that mediation (go between) is widely practiced in the West Bank of which 93.5 per

cent believe it is practiced in the private sector as compared with 94.0 per cent of managers who believe it is practiced in the public sector. As for the reason for the use of mediation, the results indicate that 35.6 per cent believe it is used merely because of tradition, while 20.9 per cent believe it is used in order to get things done faster.

2. A large majority of managers, 81.9 per cent believe that nepotism is widely practiced in the West Bank environment of whom 74.0 per cent believe that it is used in the private sector, as compared to 88.0 per cent who believe that nepotism is used in the public sector.
3. As for the use of bribes, the data indicate that only 58.8 per cent of the managers believe that bribes are used in the West Bank. Of these managers, 59.7 per cent believe bribes are used in the private sector and 58.0 per cent think they are used in the public sector.

However, the findings clearly indicate that the majority of West Bank managers, 77.4 per cent are against the use of mediation. They believe that mediation is a hindrance to them in their work. 97.1 per cent of the managers are against the use of bribes, as they believe that bribes are unethical and are forbidden in Islamic laws and sharia.

Regarding the managers and their discussion of non business matters with subordinates, the findings indicate that 90.4 per cent of the managers discuss matters other than business with their employees of whom 90.9 per cent are managers in the private sector and 90.0 per cent are administrators from the public sector. From this we can conclude that West Bank employees are working in amiable and social environments. Yet, despite managers discussion of non business matters with employees, the findings indicate that 33.3 per cent of the respondents still believe that subordinates

are sometimes afraid to voice their disagreement. 7.9 per cent of the managers believe that subordinates are frequently afraid to express disagreement with them, while 1.7 per cent of the managers believe that employees are very frequently afraid to express their disagreement with their managers. This fear is believed to be a direct result of subordinates fear of the use of coercive power by managers and administrators.

As for the managers view of an ideal employee, the data indicate that a large majority of managers, 63.8 per cent, view an ideal employee as the one who is most loyal to the firm or organisation in which he works.

With respect to unions affiliation, the results indicate that despite the proliferation of unions in the West Bank, they are joined by less than half of the managers in the sample, 46.3 per cent.

The findings also reveal that only 63.4 per cent of union members attend their unions quite often. One possible reason for the low percentage of affiliation and visits to the unions by members is because of fear of harassment in the form of detention and reprisals by the Israeli secret intelligence, hence unions are perceived by the Israeli government as "hot beds for terrorism".⁽¹¹⁾

16.4.4. Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Managers Attitudes and Change

Concerning management attitudes and change, the data analyses indicate the following outcome:

1. With respect to managers attitudes towards jobs, the data reveal that almost 60 per cent of total managers in the sample perceive their jobs

as being distinctly interesting and being an important part of their lives. This could be explained as a result of internal motivation, where it was found for example, that 59.9 per cent of managers attended training programmes of some kind or another, and as a result of the size of the organisation where the findings already indicate that out of 59.9 per cent of the managers who think of their jobs as being distinctly interesting, 63.6 per cent is found in the response of managers working in medium size organisations. Interestingly, only 6.2 per cent of the managers view their jobs as "a source of demand and pressure that affect other personal and family life activities".

2. Concerning the managers and the extent to which their jobs allow them to use their abilities, the outcome of the data analysis indicate that 46.3 per cent of the managers believe that their jobs allow them to use their abilities to a great extent, 11.9 per cent completely, 33.9 per cent use their abilities only to some extent, 6.8 per cent to a minor extent, while 1.1 per cent of the managers do not use abilities at all on the job.
3. With respect to the other variables which affect managers attitudes, the statistical findings indicate that only the size of organisation has a significant effect while variables like the type of business ownership, managers age and education, have no significant effect on managers attitudes towards their jobs.
4. As for managers attitudes towards time, the findings indicate that the vast majority of managers, 85.3 per cent, share a very high appreciation of time. This finding is supported by Muna (1980) where he concluded that any generalisation about the Arab executives being fatalistic is academically irresponsible and misleading. Of the remaining managers, however, 11.3 per cent view the time concept as

valuable, while 3.4 per cent believe that time is valuable only when one is working.

5. Regarding the reasons for being late for work, the outcomes of the findings indicate that nearly half the managers were late for work in the past twelve months prior to the data collection only because of the occupiers practices and behaviour. Managers reported that they were held up at military checkpoints and others were summoned to military headquarters or placed under curfew. Of the remaining managers, 16.9 percent were late for work because of social activities such as being visited at home by friends and relatives, or because of other occasions like the death or marriage of some relative or friend, where the managers had to be present. In addition 14.6 per cent of managers were late because of family matters such as taking a member of the family to a doctor or hospital or because of other matters related to the family such as the buying of food or other household needs.
6. With regard to West Bank managers and their attitudes towards life insurance, the data analysis indicate that 28.2 per cent of the managers carry life insurance policies. All the managers who did not carry life insurance policies attributed the reasons which prevented them from doing so to: religion 40.2 per cent, financial benefits are not rewarding 18.0 per cent, personal or family wealth 15.0 per cent, negligence 13.4 per cent, financial difficulties 7.9 per cent and due to the country's social security system and work pensions 5.5 per cent. Although 40.2 per cent of the managers did not carry life insurance policies because of religious reasons, that does not justify that West Bank managers are fatalistic in this regard.
7. The data regarding managers attitudes towards change indicate that

66.0 per cent of West Bank managers are in favour of females being employed in higher managerial levels, of whom 9.6 per cent strongly favour such change. With regard to managers attitudes toward females working as employees, the results reveal that the vast majority of managers, 89.3 per cent, are pro such change. The researcher attributes such positive attitude towards the employment of women to several factors:

First: higher educational level of Palestinian women. Previous findings indicate that 40 per cent of university students in the occupied territories are women,⁽¹²⁾ while in another study it was pointed out that the number of female university graduates among Palestinians is higher than among other Arabs.⁽¹³⁾

Second: the higher educational level of managers where it is found that over 67 per cent of managers in the sample are university graduates. Managers education is believed to have broadened their perceptions toward women.

Third: economic necessity. The severe economic conditions of the Palestinians under occupation has produced some changes in Palestinian attitudes towards the employment of women.

Fourth: current political situation. The researcher believes that the current political situation has created women leaders within the Palestinian community. In the West Bank, women play a major role in defence against the occupation. Interestingly, many women in the West Bank are becoming increasingly independent as a result of the arrests of either their husbands, brothers, or fathers. Therefore, these forms of harassment leave the women with no alternative but to look after the home, the children, the family and to be a temporary breadwinner.

As for the managers attitudes towards the need for more freedom from the prevailing customs and traditions, the results show that the vast majority of managers, 84.7 per cent, are thirsty for change in the prevailing customs and traditions. Only 15.2 per cent are against such change. From this finding we can conclude that Palestinian managers are burdened with the customs and traditions and would rather gain more freedom and independence from them. Among the unwanted customs and traditions which are cited by managers are: the killing because of honour related matters, female companions when visiting doctors (chaperone), rejection to the establishment of special homes for raped victims, and for elderly people other than the handicapped, and the practice of mediation and nepotism.

As for managers attitudes towards an increase in business automation and technology, the findings show that the vast majority, 98.3 per cent, of managers in favour of such change of whom 72.7 are strongly in favour.

With relation to the variables affecting managers attitudes toward the various changes, the data reveal that the variables which are thought to have an effect on managers attitudes proved otherwise. The findings show that the age and education of managers have no statistical significance or contribution towards the variation in managers attitudes towards the changes already discussed.

To sum up these findings, we can conclude that West Bank managers are pro change. They have a high appreciation of time, some of them carry life insurance and only 40 per cent of those do not have life insurance for religious reasons. With these findings in mind, we can also conclude that West Bank managers have a positive attitude towards their jobs. They think

of their jobs as something interesting and regard them as important parts of their lives.

16.4.5 Findings and Conclusions Pertaining to Managers Thinking

The findings of the study are believed to have provided us with a better understanding of West Bank managers attitudes, beliefs, needs and needs satisfaction. The findings reveal the following outcomes.

In regard to managers attitudes our findings show that West Bank managers have a negative attitude towards planning and forecasting. On the other hand, the data suggest that West Bank managers place high concern on communication. Although West Bankers believe that it is impossible to make plans and to forecast in the presence of the occupation, and where managers experience proves that planning and forecasting are worthless in the light of the uncertainty and daily instability in the region, the researcher characterised these managers as fatalistic despite their negative attitude toward planning and forecasting because of reasons other than religious.

As for the variables (Individual and Organisational) which have the largest discriminating weight on managers attitudes towards the various managerial functions, the Multivariate Discriminant Analysis (MDA) results show the following:

Attitude Towards Planning and Forecasting: affected mostly by the variables: size of firm or organisation 0.750, number of children -0.628, and managers field of study with a discriminating weight 0.397.

Attitude Towards Organising/Staffing: affected largely by the variables: age

of manager 0.771, educational level 0.546, and managers field of study with a discriminating weight of -0.385.

Attitude Towards Communication: affected mostly by the variables: age of manager 0.933, managers educational level 0.358, and size of firm or organisation with -0.337 discriminating weight.

Attitude Towards Leading: affected largely by the variables: size of firm or organisation 0.701, educational level of manager 0.592, and managers age with a discriminating weight of -0.471

Attitude Towards Motivation: affected mostly by the variables: age of firm or organisation -0.995, managers educational level 0.656, and the variable number of children with -0.454 discriminating power.

As for the managers beliefs our findings indicate that West Bank managers place high concern on employees, their problems and complaints and less concern on seniority despite the fact that the mean length of service for the manager is 12.95 years. However, the findings show that managers beliefs about the various managerial themes are largely affected by the following individual and organisational variables:

Management relationship (i.e. with employees) is largely affected by the variables: type of business ownership 0.731, age of manager 0.649, and the managers field of study with -0.371 discriminating weight.

Social beliefs affected mostly by the variables: managers educational level 0.895, number of children -0.616 and the size of firm with a discriminating power of 0.292.

Beliefs about Seniority affected largely by the variables: age of manager - 0.597, managers field of study 0.474, and managers educational level with 0.306 discriminating weight.

Organisation, Group and Individual Behaviour affected mostly by managers marital status 0.770, number of children -0.747, and age of firm and organisation with a discriminating weight of 0.592.

With respect to the managers need importance, our analysis of the findings indicate that West Bank managers rank social needs as their most important followed by esteem, self-actualisation, autonomy, and security. From this finding we can conclude that West Bank managers are more concerned about their social status than with job security. This finding is not surprising as it is already pointed out that reputation and social status are regarded most highly in the West Bank as much as in the rest of the Arab World.

As for the managers need satisfaction, the findings show that West Bank managers are satisfied with all needs prescribed. However, their degree of satisfaction varies. Although social need is considered the most important it is also found to be the most satisfied.

In addition to all these findings, the data presented are so beneficial that the material has broadened our knowledge and understanding of managers needs importance and need satisfaction especially in the light of the comparison made between the findings of this study and other relevant studies.

16.4.6 Contributions and Research Implications

The present study is thought to make a significant contribution to our understanding of the influence of national culture on management. The findings clearly attest that West Bank culture in fact does play a part in the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour of West Bank managers. The data presented in this study categorically indicate that West Bank managers practices and behaviour are, to a large extent, culture-bound.

This study is regarded as a continuation of the studies already existing about Arab management, so it contributes to the enhancement of knowledge with this regard and in fact contributes more to the knowledge of human behaviour in the business world.

In addition to the recommendations that have been mentioned through the text, the findings of this research have some other implications. They suggest that West Bank managers are to a large extent ingrained by their cultural and historic value. Values relating to the man as being the head of the family and the close-knit society which has apparently affected managers attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour. Thus, foreign management can benefit from this study by knowing that when dealing with West Bankers as well as with Middle Easterners they should consider their historical cultural background and therefore should not expect them to abandon their culture and heritage. Instead, management should work with their heritage in order to attain better results through better understanding of their personalities. In addition, it is believed that by understanding West Bank managers, a non-Arab can thus reduce the cultural shock which is often felt by foreign and alien personnel.

The findings of the study are thought to have some implications for the West Bank society. It is believed that this study will help bring about some changes in that environment through the exploration of managers attitudes and beliefs like the demonstration of management disapproval of the practice of mediation, nepotism, and their need for freedom from customs and tradition in addition to their thirst for the increase in business automation and technology.

The findings of this study are also thought to bring about a change in attitude toward time by people in the West Bank. Therefore, these findings will help develop a management of time concept in the West Bank as managers have already expressed their worries over the lack of concern for time by people in the West Bank.

Based on the findings, the researcher believes that it is so vital to reorganise the whole educational system on the West Bank. The research findings demonstrate an urgent need for technical and vocational teaching and training.

Finally, this study is thought to have some implications for the employers of managers. It is believed that the findings will help employers understand better management attitudes, beliefs, needs and wants, therefore they can know better how to deal with the managers through a better assessment and understanding of their personalities.

16.4.7 Future Research and Recommendations

Although the findings of this study provide several implications for

individuals and organisations in the West Bank in particular and to universal management and organisation behaviour in general, there are some suggestions which the researcher feels he should mention:

- (i) Differences in attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour of managers between and among various cultures, create the need for extensive cross-cultural research. Therefore, a large sample of countries with different socio-economic, political and legal environments is necessary to help reach a universal conclusion concerning the relationship between managers attitudes, beliefs and behaviour on the one hand, and the different variables (individual and organisational) on the other.
- (ii) Research is strenuously needed to explore and analyse the impact of the political, economic and legal systems in the West Bank on the management philosophy of West Bank managers.
- (iii) Future research is essential on the relationships between managers attitudes, beliefs and managerial leadership styles, type of motivation needed, and the decision making behaviour of West Bank managers.
- (iv) Comparative research is urgently needed on both managers in the West Bank and their Israeli counterparts and between West Bank managers and those managers in the East Bank (Jordan).
- (v) Future research of this type should include the Gaza Strip which is also part of the occupied territories and also under Israeli control.
- (vi) The limitations of this research necessitate the replication of the current study in order to observe changes in West Bank managers attitudes and beliefs over time and to ensure that the findings of this study can be generalised beyond our sample of 177 managers.

(vii) Replication of this study but with modification:

- (a) Any future study should incorporate middle and lower level management.
- (b) Employees should be included so as to make sure that managers do not miss the mark with regard to their employees needs, wants and attributes.

CHAPTER 16

Endnotes

1. Moayad Sulieman, *op cit.*, p. 168.
2. See R.V. Clements, Managers: A Study of their Careers in Industry. (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1958), p. 184.
3. See Mabel Newcomer, The Big Business Executive. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1968) Charles G. Brunk: A Group Profile of the Fortune, 500 Chief Executives. Fortune, (May 1976), pp.173-6.
4. See Thomas F.D. Adams and N. Kobayashi The World of Japanese Business. (London: Wardlock Ltd. 1969). pp. 121-2; M. Y. Yoshino, (Ed.) Managerial Class in Japanese Managerial Systems: Traditions and Innovation (Massachusetts Institute of Technology: MIT Press, 1968), p. 141.
5. Massoud Y. El-Baruni, *op cit.*, p. 204.
6. Mohammed A. Al-Akil, Impact of Economic and Social Migration on Labour in Jordan, unpublished paper (1989), p.4 (In Arabic).
7. Patai, The Arab Mind (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1973), p. 113.
8. Isaam J. Dawood, *op cit.*, p.167, Iraqi Production Managers: Analysis of the Characteristics and Demands of Their Job. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Glasgow, 1989, p. 167.
9. Mohammed K. Shadid, Israeli Policy Towards Economic Development in the West Bank and Gaza in George T. Abed (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. (London: Routledge 1988), p. 124.

10. See Kenneth A. Kovach, SAM Advanced Management Journal, Spring 1980. In Robert Kreitner, Management, Third Edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986), p. 383.
11. See Israel Kessar, The Guardian, February 16, 1990.
12. Atif A. Kubursi, Jobs, Education and Development: The Case of the West Bank, in George T. Abed (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. (London: Routledge 1988), p. 223.
13. See Khalil Nakhleh *et al* The Sociology of the Palestinian, *op cit.*, p.154.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A - BOOKS and DISSERTATIONS

- Abed, G. (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. London: Routledge, 1988.
- Abou-Zeid, A. "Honour and Shame Among the Bedouins of Egypt". In Peristiany, J. (Ed.) Honour and Shame: The Value of Mediterranean Society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966.
- Abu Kishk, B. "Industrial Development and Policies in the West Bank and Gaza". In Abed, G. (Ed.), The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development Under Prolonged Occupation. New York: Routledge, 1988.
- Adams, C.J. "Islamic Religious Tradition". In Binder, L. (Ed.). Middle East. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Adams, T. and Kobayashi, N. "The World of Japanese Business". In Yoshino, M.Y. (Ed.). Managerial Class in Japanese Managerial Systems: Traditions and Innovations. Massachusetts Institute of Technology, MIT Press, 1968.
- Aghabekian, V. "Perception of Effectiveness Indicators for the Development of an Instrument for Evaluating Colleges and Universities on the Occupied West Bank". PhD Dissertation, University of Pittsburg, 1988.
- Ahmad, H. The Life of Muhammad. Pakistan: The Ahmadiyya Muslim Foreign Mission Office, 1960.
- Al-Akil, M. Impact of Economic and Social Migration on Labour in Jordan. Unpublished Paper, 1989. (In Arabic).
- Al-A'Raj, H.A. "Labour Turnover in the West Bank: An Analysis of

- Causes of Turnover in the Industrial Sector". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Glasgow, November 1989.
- Al-Faleh, M.S. "Career Development in the Bureaucracy of Jordan". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Glasgow, 1983.
- Ali, A. and Swiercz, M. "The Relationship Between Managerial Decision Styles and Work Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia". In Kaynak, E. (Ed.) International Business in the Middle East. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1986.
- Al Marah, K. and Nakhleh K. The Sociology of the Palestinians. London: Croom Helm Ltd. 1980
- American University Area. Handbook for Syria. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1965.
- Ammar, H. Growing Up in an Egyptian Village. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954.
- Antoun, R. "Anthropology in the Study of the Middle East". In Binder, L. (Ed.). Research and scholarships in the Humanities and Social Sciences. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Arensberg, C. Introducing Social Change: A Manual for Community Development, 2nd Edition. Chicago Adline Publishing Company, 1971.
- Aruri, N. (Ed.) Occupation: Israel Over Palestine. London: Zed Books Ltd., 1984.
- Askar, S.A. "Personal Value System of Egyptian Manager". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Mississippi State University, 1979.
- Ata, I.W. The West Bank Palestinian Family. London: KPI, 1986.
- Babbie, E.R. Survey Research Methods. California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1973.
- Bailey, S.D. The Making of Resolutions 242. The Netherlands, Kluwer

- Academic Publishers Group, 1985.
- Benvenisti, M. The West Bank Handbook. The West Bank Data Base Project, Jerusalem, 1986.
- Benvenisti, M. Demographic, Economic, Legal, Social and Political Development in the West Bank. The West Bank Data Base Project. Jerusalem, 1987.
- Berger, M. The Arab World Today. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor Books, 1962.
- Bible, The Holy.
- Blake, R. and Mouton, J.S. The Managerial Grid III. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985.
- Bobbitt, H., Brienholt, R., Kortor, R., and McNaul, J. Organisational Behaviour, Understanding and Prediction. Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1978.
- Bregman, A. Economic Growth in the Administered Area, 1968-1973. Bank of Israel, Jerusalem, 1975.
- Brown, L.K. and Smith, R. (Eds). The Subtle Revolution: Women at Work. Washington, DC, The Urban Institute, 1979.
- Buchanan, D.A. Introduction to Research Designs. Problem of Generalisation and Control. Unpublished Paper, Scottish Business School, University of Glasgow, 1986.
- Buchanan, D.A. and Huczynski, A.A. Organisational Behaviour, An Introductory Text. United Kingdom: Prentice Hall International, Ltd., 1985.
- Cattan, H. Palestine and the Arabs of Israel: The Search for Justice. London: Longman, 1969.

- Chandler, A. "The United States: Evolution of Enterprise". In Mathias, P. and Postan, M. (Eds). The Cambridge Economic History of Europe. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978.
- Child, J. and Keiser, A. "Contrast of British and West German Management Practice: Are Recipes for Success Culture Bound?" Paper presented at the Conference on Cross Cultural Studies on Organisation Functioning. Hawaii, 1977.
- Clements, R. Managers: A Study of Their Career in Industry. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1958.
- Clyde, K. "The Concept of Culture". In Richard (Ed.) Culture and Behaviour. New York: The Free Press, 1962.
- Dassel, E. "Management and Its Environment in Belgium". In Massie, Joseph L. and Luytjes, J. (Eds). Management in an International Context. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.
- Davis, K. Human Behaviour at Work: Organisation Behaviour. Sixth Edition. New York: MacGraw Hill, 1981.
- Dawood, I.J. "Iraqi Production Managers: Analysis of the Characteristics and Demands of Their Job". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Glasgow, 1989.
- Dodd, P. and Barakat, H. River Without Bridges. Beirut: IPS, 1968.
- Drabkin, H. and Tuma, E.H. The Economic Case for Palestine. London: Croom Helm, 1978.
- Drucker, P. Management: Tasks and Responsibilities. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.
- Duais, S. Comparative Management: Organisational Cultural Perspectives. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc. 1969.
- Edelburg, G. "Management and Its Environment in Argentina". In Massie, Joseph L. and Luytjes, J. (Eds). Management in an

- International Context. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.
- El-Baruni, M. Personal Value System of Libyan Managers: An Exploratory Study. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. St. Louis University, 1980.
- El-Hawat, A.E. "Social Change and Patterns of Development: The Case of Libya". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Washington University, 1974.
- Evans, W. Organisational Experiments and Field Research. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.
- Farsoun, S.K. "Family Structure and Society in Modern Lebanon". In Sweet, Louise E. (Ed.) Peoples and Culture of the Middle East, 2nd Volume. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Natural History Press, 1970.
- Fasheh, M. "Impact on Education". In Aruri, N. Occupation: Israel Over Palestine. London: Zed Books Ltd., 1984.
- Feldberg, M. "Management and Its Environment in the Republic of South Africa". In Massie, Joseph L., and Luytjes, J. (Eds.) Management in an International Context. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.
- Fiedler, F.E. and Chemers, M.M. Leadership and Effective Management. Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foreman and Company, 1977.
- Finlay, A.C., House, R. and Kerr, S. Managerial Process and Organisational Behaviour. Scott Foreman and Company, 1976.
- Fishbein, M. Readings in Attitudes Theory and Measurement. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1967.
- Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research. Philippines: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1975.

- Fleishman, E., Harris, F. and Burt, H. Leadership and Supervision in Industry. Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, 1955.
- Frisch, H. Stagnation and Frontier. Arab and Jewish Industry in the West Bank. The West Bank Data Base Project, Jerusalem, 1983.
- Gainsborough, J.R. The Arab Israeli Conflict: A Political Legal Analysis. Vermont: Gower Publishing Company, 1986.
- Government of Israel, Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Statistical Abstract of Israel, Jerusalem, 1966.
- Government of Israel, Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Administered Territories Statistics Quarterly. Jerusalem, December 1985.
- Government of Israel, Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Statistical Abstract of Israel No.37, Central Bureau of Statistics, Jerusalem, 1986
- Government of Israel, Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Civil Administration for Judea and Samaria, Annual Report, Jerusalem, 1984.
- Government of Jordan, Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1981-1985. National Planning Council, Amman, 1981.
- Granner, Hodgson. Overseas Management. McCraw Hill Book Company, 1965.
- Green, P.E. Research for Marketing Decision. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1975
- Gulick, J. The Middle East: An Anthropological Perspective. California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1976.
- Haddad, Y. "Palestinian Women: Patterns of Legislation and Domination". In Nakhleh, K. and Zureik, E. (Eds.), The Sociology of the

- Palestinians. London: Croom Helm, 1980.
- Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L. and Grablowsky, B.J. Multivariate Data Analysis. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. 1984.
- Haire, M., Chiselli, E. and Porter L. Managerial Thinking: An International Study. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1966.
- Hakim, C. Research Design: Structure and Choices in the Design of Social Research. Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1987.
- Hallaj, M. In Nakhleh, E. (Ed.) A Palestinian Agenda for the West Bank and Gaza. Washington, DC. American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1980.
- Hampton, D., Summer, E., and Webber, R. Organisational Behaviour and the Practice of Management. Third Edition. Illinois: Scott, Foreman and Company, 1978.
- Harper, P. Labouring under Oppression: Poles and Palestinians. London: Council for Advancement of Arab British Understanding.
- Harris, L. Feasibility Study for the Establishment of Industrial Development in the Occupied Territories. Vienna: UNIDO, 1988.
- Harris, L. "Money and Finance With Undeveloped Banking in the Occupied Territories". In Abed, G. (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. London: Routledge, 1988.
- Hedderson, J. SPSSx Made Simple. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co. 1987.
- Hellreigel, D. and Slocum, J.W. Management Contingency Approach. Wesley Publishing Company, 1978.

- Herbert, T.T. Dimensions of Organisational Behaviour. Second Edition. New York: McNukkab Publishing Company, 1981.
- Herzberg, F. Work and the Nature of Man. New York: Staples Press, 1966.
- Herzberg, F. Mausner B., and Snyderman, B. The Motivation to Work. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959.
- Herzl, T. Complete Diaries. In Patai, R. (Ed.). Zohn, H. (Translator). New York: Herzl Press and T. Yoseloff, 1960.
- Herzog, H. "The War of Atonement". In Ott, D.H. Palestine in Perspective, Politics, Human Rights of the West Bank. London: Quartet Books, 1980.
- Hitti, P. Islam: A Way of Life. Minneapolis: Oxford University Press, 1970.
- Hodge, B. and Johnson, H. Management and Organisational Behaviour: A Multidimensional Approach. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1970, p.66.
- Hull, N.H., Bent, C. and Neiswonger, M. Statistical Package for the Social Services. New York: McGraw Hill, 1975.
- Jabr, H. The Marketing of Islamic Banks Services in Jordan. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Glasgow, 1990.
- Jacklin, C.N. Sex Differences and their Implications for Management. In Gordon, F.E. and Strober, M.H. (Eds.) Bringing Women into Management. New York: McGraw Hill, 1975.
- Jeremy, B. "An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation". In Burt, E.A.(Ed.), English Philosophers from Bacon to Mill. Random House, 1939.
- Johnson, T. and Stinson, J. Management Today and Tomorrow. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1978.

- Kahan, D. Agriculture and Water Resources in the West Bank and Gaza: 1967-1987. The West Bank Data Base Project, Jerusalem, 1987.
- Kassem, S.M. and Habib, G. Strategic Management and Services in the Arab Gulf States. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter and Co., 1989.
- Kaynak, E. International Business in the Middle East. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter and Co., 1986.
- Khyat, M.K. and Keating, M. Lebanon: Land of Cedars. Beirut Khayats, 1960.
- Kluckhohn, C. "Values and Value Orientation in the Theory of Action". In Parson, T. and Shils, E. (Eds.) Toward a General Theory of Action. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951.
- Kolasa, B.J. Introduction to Behavioural Science for Business. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1969.
- Koontz, H., O'Donnell, C., and Weihrich, H. Management. Seventh Edition. New York: McGraw Hill, 1980.
- Koontz, H., O'Donnell, C. and Weihrich, H. Management. Eighth Edition. New York: McGraw Hill, 1984.
- Korn, F. International Boards of Directors. Annual Study. First-Seventh. New York: New York.
- Kovach, K.S. Advanced Management Journal, Spring 1980. In Kreitner, R. Management. Third Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986.
- Kreitner, R. Management. Third Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1986.
- Kubursi, A. "Job Education and Development. The Case of the West Bank" in Abed, G. (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy. Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. London: Routledge, 1988.

- Lawrence, P. and Elliott, K. Introducing Management. London: Penguin Group, 1985.
- Lewis, B. The Arabs in History. London: Macmillan, 1981.
- Lobstein, J. "Management and Its Environment in France". In Massie, J.L. and Luytjes, J. (Eds). Management in International Context. New York: Harpers and Row, 1972.
- Longman Dictionary of Psychology. London, 1987.
- Luke, H.C. and Roach, K.E. The Handbook of Palestine. London: Macmillan, 1922.
- Mansour, A. "The West Bank Economy: 1948-1984". In Abed, G.T. (Ed.). The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development under Prolonged Occupation. London: Routledge, 1988.
- Martyr, J.W. "Cultural Discontinuities and the Transfer of Management Philosophies and Practices with Particular Reference to Great Britain and the Arab Countries of the Arabian Gulf and Saudi Arabia". Unpublished Master Thesis, Brunel University, 1985.
- Massie, J.L. and Luytjes J. (Eds.) Management in an International Context. US Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.
- Massie, J.L. Essentials of Management. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1971.
- Matheny, T. Reaching the Arabs: A Felt Need Approach. William Carey Library, California, 1981.
- Maududi, A.A. Towards Understanding Islam. UK: Nottingham, Islamic Mission, 1980.
- May, D. "Women in Islam: Yesterday and Today". In Pullapilly, Cyriac K Islam: In the Contemporary World. Notre Dame, Indiana: Cross Roads Books, 1980.

- Migdal, J.S. The Palestinian Society and Politics. New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1980.
- Miller, D.C. Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement. New York: David McKay Company Inc. 1978.
- Milson, M. How to Make Peace With the Palestinians. Commentary, May 1981.
- Montagu. Culture, 1986.
- Muna, F.A. The Arab Executive. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd. 1980.
- Murrel, K.L. "A Cultural Analysis of the Egyptian Environment". In Harris, P. and Mechin, G. (Eds). Innovation in Global Consultation. Washington DC International Consultation Foundation, 1979.
- Nachmias, D. and Chava. Research Methods in the Social Science. New York: St. Martins Press, 1981.
- Nakhleh, E. The West Bank and Gaza: Towards the Making of a Palestinian State: Washington: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1979.
- Nakhleh, K. and Zureik, E. The Sociology of the Palestinians. London: Croom Helm, 1980.
- Nasru, F. West Bank Education in Government Schools: 1967-1977. Birzeit University Publication Center, 1977.
- Newcomer, M. The Big Business Executive. New York: Columbia University Press, 1968.
- Ott, D.H. Palestine in Perspectives, Politics, Human Rights and the West Bank. London: Quartet Books, 1980.
- Ovendale, R. The Origins of the Arab Israeli Wars. New York: Longman Group Limited, 1989.
- Palestine Liberation Organisation. Central Bureau of Statistics, No.4., 1982.

- Paston, J. The Statesman Yearbook, 124th Edition. 1987-1988.
- Patai, R. The Arab Mind. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1973.
- Peristiany, J.G. (Ed.) Honour and Shame: The Value of Mediterranean Society. (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1965).
- Pfeffer, J. and Salancik, G. The External Control of Organisation: A Resource Dependence Perspective. New York: Harper and Row, 1978.
- Pierce, J.E. Understanding the Middle East. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle, 1971.
- Pye, Lucian W. Politics, Personality and Nations Building. Burma's Search for Identity. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1962.
- Quran, The Holy.
- Qutb, M. Islam: The Misunderstood Religion. Laitore: Islamic Publication Ltd., 1982.
- Rigby, A. Economic Aspects of the Intifada. Jerusalem: PASSIA, 1988.
- Rivers, J.P. "Honour and Social Status". In Peristiany, J.G. (Ed.). Honour and Shame: The Nature of Mediterranean Society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966.
- Robbins, S.P. Essentials of Organisational Behaviour. Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1988.
- Robert, D.S. Islam, A Western Guide. Middlesex: The Hamlyn Publishing Co.Ltd., 1987.
- Rodinson, M. Islam and Capitalism. Suffolk: Richard Clay, The Chaucer Press Ltd., 1974.
- Rogers, E.M. and Lynne, S. Modernisation Among Peasants: The Impact of Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

- Rokeach, M. Beliefs, Attitudes and Values. A Theory of Organisations and Change. First Edition. San Francisco, 1968.
- Rokeach, M. The Nature of Human Values. New York: The Free Press, 1973.
- Rotel, S.H. Political Dictionary of the State of Israel. New York: McMillan Publishing Company, 1987.
- Rowley, G. Israel into Palestine. London: Mansell Publishing Limited, 1984.
- Samara, A. The Political Economy of the West Bank, 1967-1987. Khamsin, 1988.
- Sschein, E.H. Organisational Psychology. Third Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1980.
- Scott, W.A. Values and Organisations. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965.
- Semyonou, M. and Epstein, N. Hewers of Wood and Drawers of Water. Non Citizen Arabs in the Israeli Labour Market. Jerusalem, 1987.
- Shadid, M.K. "Israel Policy Towards Economic Development in the West Bank and Gaza". In Abed, G. (Ed.) The Palestinian Economy: Studies in Development Under Prolonged Occupation. London: Routledge, 1988.
- Sharabi, H. In Pipes, D. The Path of God: Islam and Political Power. New York: Basic Books Inc. 1983.
- Sisk, H. and Williams, J. Management and Organisation. Fourth Edition. South Western Publishing Company, 1981.
- Smith, E. Dictionary of Psychology.
- Sorge, A. Culture's Consequences. In Lawrence, P. and Elliott, K. Introducing Management.. London: Penguin Books, 1985.

Stodgill, R. Handbook of Leadership. New York: The Free Press, 1974.

Stoner, J.A. Management, 1984.

Suliman, M. "Senior Managers in Iraqi Society: Their Background and Attitudes". Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University of Glasgow, 1984.

Taggart, S. Workers in Struggle: Palestinian Trade Unions in the Occupied West Bank. Editpride, 1985.

Terry, G. Principles of Management, Seventh Edition. Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, 1977.

The Palestine Post, Diary, 1989.

Tritton, A.S. Islam, Beliefs and Practices. London: Hutchinson and Company Limited, 1966.

United Nations. United Nations Report. New York: United Nations, 1986.

UNECWA, Report on the Industrial and Economic Trends in the West Bank and Gaza Strip. UNECWA: Beirut. August 1981.

Weber, M. Essays in Sociology. In Gerth, H.H. and Mills, C.W. (Eds). and (Trans.) London: Lowe and Brydone Ltd., 1964.

Weber, M., and Bendix, R. An Intellectual Portrait. New York: Doubleday and Company Inc. 1960.

Weber, M. In Pipes, D. The Path of God: Islam and Political Power. New York: Basic Book Inc. Publishers, 1983.

Weinshall, T.D. Culture and Management. Selected Readings. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1977.

Wick, K.E. "Laboratory Experimentation with Organisation". In March, J.

Williams, R. Keywords, 1976.

Wilson, H. The Chariot of Israel, Britain, America and the State of Israel. London, 1981.

Wraith, R. and Simpkins, E. Corruption in Developing Countries .
New York: W.W. Worton, 1964.

B - ARTICLES

- Adler, N.J. "Women in International Management". California Management Review, No.4 (Summer 1984).
- Adler, N.J. "Female Managers Overseas". Columbia Journal of World Business (Fall 1984).
- Adler, N.J. "Cross Cultural Management: Issues to be Faced". International Studies of Management Behaviour and Organisation, 8 (1-2).
- Adler, N.J. "Women Do Not Want International Careers, and Other Myths About International Management". Organisational Dynamics, (1984).
- Adler, N.J. "Women in International Management: Where are They?". California Management Review, Vol. XXVI, No.4, (Summer 1984).
- Al-Ghanim, K. "How To Do Business in the Middle East". Management Review, 65, 8, (1976).
- Amsa, P. "Organisational Culture and Work Group Behaviour: An Empirical Study". Journal of Management Studies (May 1986).
- Anastos, D., Seaman.B., and Bedos, A. "The Development of Modern Management Practice in Saudi Arabia". The Columbia Journal of World Business 15, 2 (Summer 1980)
- Aruri, N. "Repression in Academia: Palestinian Universities versus the Israeli Military". Arab Perspective (May 1981).
- Ata, I.W. "The Impact of Westernising and other Factors on the Changing Status of Muslim Women". East Anthropologist, Vol.37(2) (1984).

- Ata, I.W. "Prospects and Retrospectives on the Role of Moslem Arab Women at Present: Trends and Tendencies". Islamic Culture, An English Quarterly, Vol. LV, No.1 (October 1981).
- Awartani, H. "Obstacles to Opportunity". Journal of Refugee Studies, Vol.2, No.1 (1989).
- Badawy, M.K. "Styles of Mideastern Managers". California Management Review, Vol.XXII, No.2, (Spring 1980).
- Badawy, M.K. "Managerial Attitudes and Need Orientations of Mideastern Executives: An Empirical Cross-Cultural Analysis". Academy of Management Proceedings (August 1979).
- Baker, A.M. "Informal Education Programmes". Journal of Refugee Studies, Vol.2, No.1 (1989).
- Beck, D. "The Changing Muslim Family of the Middle East". Marriage and Family Living, 19 (November 1957).
- Benedict in Evans, W.M. "Culture and Organisational Systems". Organisational Administration Science, 4 (1975).
- Bhagat R.S. "Role of Subjective Culture in Organisations: A Review and Directions for Future Resarch". Journal of Applied Psychology Monography, 67 (October 1982).
- Boas in Evans W.M. "Culture and Organisational Systems". Organisational Administration Science, 4, (1975).
- Brown, L. "The Women Managers in the United States: A Research Analysis and Bibliography". Business and Professional Foundation. (1981).
- Brunk, C. "A Group Profile of the Future". 500 Chief Executives, (May 1976).
- Budeiri, M.K. "Changes in the Economic Structure of the West Bank and Gaza Strip Under Israeli Occupation". Labour Capital Science

- Vol.15, No.1 (April 1982).
- Cattell, R.B. "Personality Pinned Down" Psychology Today (July 1973).
- Cohen, M.D., March, J.G., and Olsen, J.P. "A Garbage Can Model of Organisational Choice". Administrative Science Quarterly, 14 (1972), pp. 1-25.
- Edler, J. "Family Life in Shiah Islam". Muslim World 18, (July 1928).
- European Publications Ltd. The Middle East and North Africa, 1990, Thirty Sixth Edition (1989).
- Evans, W.M. "Culture and Organisational System". Organisational Administrative Science, 4, (1975).
- Fargues, P. "The Decline of Arab Fertility". Population, Vol.1, 44, No.1 (September 1989).
- Fiedler, F.E. "Job Engineering for Effective Leadership: A New Approach" Management Review, 66 (September 1977).
- Ford, R. and McLaughlin, F. "Perception of Social Responsible Activities and Attitudes: A Comparison of Business School Deans and Corporate Chief Executives". Academy of Management Journal, Vol.1, 27, No.3 (September 1984).
- Giacaman, R. Palestinian Women in the Uprising: From Followers to Leaders. Journal of Refugees Studies, Vol.2, No.1 (1989).
- Haire, M., Chiselli, E. and Porter L. "Culture Patterns in the Role of Managers". Industrial Relations, 2, (1962).
- Hofstede, G. "Motivation, Leadership and Organisation. Do American Theories Apply Abroad?" Organisational Dynamics, Vol.9, No.1, (Summer 1980).

- Hofstede, G. "The Cultural Relativity of Organisational Practice and Theories". Journal of International Business Studies (Fall 1983).
- House, R.J. and Mitchell, T.R. "Path Goal Theory of Leadership". Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.16, No.3 (September 1971).
- Horne, J.H. and Lupton, T. "The Work Activities of Middle Managers". Journal of Management Studies, Vol.1, 1. (1965).
- Humphrey, H.H. In Famulan, J.J. "Women at the Top: The Record, The Obstacle, the Outlook?" Management Review (August 1967).
- Hunt, J.W. "Applying American Behavioural Science: Some Cross Cultural Problems". Organisational Dynamics (Summer 1981).
- Israeli, D.N., Banai, M., and Zeira, Y. "Women in International Management". Californian Management Review, No.4, (Summer 1984)
- Jacob, P. "Values and Their Function in Decision Making". American Behavioural Scientist and Supplement to Vol. V, No.9, (May 1962).
- Jennings, G. "Islamic Culture and Christian Missions". Practical Anthropology (May 18-June 1971).
- Karmi, H.S. "The Family as a Developing Social Group in Islam". Asian Affairs, 62, (February 1975).
- Kelly, L. and Worthley, R. "The Role of Culture in Comparative Management: A Cross Cultural Perspective". Academy of Management Journal, Vol.24, No.1 (1981).
- Kelly, L. "The Effect of Culture on Management Attitudes: A Three Cultural Test". Journal of International Business Studies (Summer 1987).
- Khass, M. The Effects of Occupation on Women and Young People - Some Examples. Journal of Refugees Studies, Vol.2., No.1. (1989).

- Klecka, W. and Tuchfarber, A. "Random Digit Dialling: A Comparison to Personal Survey". Public Opinion Quarterly, 42, (1978).
- Lauter, G.P. "Sociological-Cultural and Legal Factors Impeding Decentralisation of Authority in Developing Countries". Academy of Management Journal, 12, (1969).
- Lauter, G.P. "Environmental Constraints Impeding Managerial Performance in Developing Countries". Management Industrial Review, 10, (1970).
- Loonay, R. "Saudi Arabia's Islamic Growth Model". Journal of Economic Issues (June 1980).
- Luzbetak, L.J. "Mission Anthropology". Practical Anthropology (September-October 1963).
- Maslow, A. "Motivation and Personality. Theory of Human Motivation". Psychological Review, 50, (July 1973).
- Mitchell, T.R. "Motivation: New Directions for Theory, Research and Practice". Academy of Management Review, 7, (January 1982).
- Nehemkis, P. "Business Payoffs Abroad: Rhetoric and Reality". California Management Review, 18, (Winter 1975).
- Noda, K. and Glazer, H. "Traditional Japanese Management Decision Making". Management International Review, 8, (1968).
- Oberg, W. "Cross Cultural Perspectives on Management Principles". Academy of Management Journal, 6, No.21, (June 1963).
- Opler, M.E. "Themes as Dynamic Force in Culture". American Journal of Sociology, 15, (November 1945).
- Peters, L. "How Important is International Communication?". Personnel Journal, 62, (July 1983).

- Pezeshkpur, C. "Challenges to Management in the Arab World".
Business Horizon (August 1978).
- Prasad, S.B. Managers Attitudes in Brazil: Nationals versus Expatriates" Management International Review, 21, (1981)
- Prothro, T.E. and Melikian "Social Distance and Social Change in the Near East". Sociology and Social Research, 37, (September 1952).
- Rand, E.J. "Learning to do Business in the Middle East: The First Impression of Recent American Visitors in Saudi Arabia and Jordan".
The Conference Board, (November 1976).
- Ray, D.A. "Management Education and Training in the Arab World: A Review of Issues and Problems". International Review of Administrative Science XLIII (1977).
- Samara, A. Kamasin, No.12, 1986.
- Sapir in Evans, W.M. "Cultural and Organisational Systems".
Organisational Administration Science 4, (1975).
- Schriesheim, C.A. "Leadership Theory: Some Implications for Managers". MSU Business Topics 126 (Summer 1978).
- Spector, P. "Behaviour in Organisation as a Function of Employees Locus of Control". Psychological Bulletin (May 1982).
- Tannenbaum, R. and Schmidt W.H. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern". Harvard Business Review (March-April 1985).
- Thal, N.L. and Cateorn, P.R. "Opportunities for Women in International Business" Business Horizon No.1 (December 1979).
- Tomeh, A. "The Impact of Reference Groups on the Educational and Occupational Aspirations of Women College Students". Journal of Marriage and the Family, 30, (February 1968).
- Zahra, S.A. "Egyptian Management at the Cross Roads". Management International Review, Vol.20, (1980).

C - NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES

Bexendale, S.J. Christian Science Monitor, CSM (August 15-21, 1988).

Francis, D.R. Christian Science Monitor, CSM (August 9-15, 1988).

Gahndor, Samid Al-Iqtisadi, No. 44, 1983 (In Arabic).

Palestine Post, September 1985.

Al-Fajr Daily Newspaper, Jerusalem, March 21, 1988 (In Arabic).

Al-Fajr Daily Newspaper, Jerusalem, August 14, 1988 (In Arabic).

Daily Mail, January 24, 1990.

Financial Times, October 8, 1988.

The Guardian, February 16, 1990.

The Guardian March 16, 1988.

The Independent, January 30, 1988.

Yediot Aharonot Newspaper, August 23, 1981 (In Hebrew).

APPENDIX 1

The Interview Schedule

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Aspects of Management Attitudes, Beliefs and Business Culture on the West Bank

Dear Manager,

This research project is intended for the Doctorate Degree in Business Management, University of Glasgow, Scotland. The research will cover the following areas:

- Background information
- Management and the environment
- Relationships
- Management attitudes, beliefs, culture
- Needs
- Satisfaction

You will find that in many of the questions you are given a number of alternative answers and asked to choose from them. In other questions you are asked to simply indicate the number which corresponds with the correct answer. Some questions will provide you with the opportunity to provide your own answer. The questionnaire is not as long as it looks. The information you provide would be deeply appreciated. It would contribute to the advancement of knowledge on this subject.

Thank you and I trust that this questionnaire will have your attention and support.

Samir Abuznaid
Researcher
Department of Management Studies
Glasgow Business School
University of Glasgow
Scotland
United Kingdom.

GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Kind of Business _____

2. Age of Firm _____

3. Total number of employees in the firm _____

4. How long have you been with the firm? _____

5. Management Status: (i) Owner (ii) Employed

6. How did you get this job? (Please tick one answer only)

1. Advertisement _____ 2. Personal contact _____

3. Family contact _____ 4. Labour Office _____

5. Pay offs (e.g.bribes) _____ 6. Other means
(specify) _____7. Level of education achieved. (Please tick one answer only).Degree/Diploma

1. Preparatory school

2. Secondary school

3. Vocational school

4. Community college
(2 years after high school)5. University
(4 years after high school)

6. Other (specify) _____

8. If the answer to the above question is other than (1) what is/was your major?

1. Management _____ 2. Accounting _____

3. Engineering _____ 4. Literature _____

5. Law _____ 6. Science _____

7. Other (specify) _____

9. How many languages do you speak fluently?

1. One language only _____ 2. Two languages _____
3. More than two languages _____

10. Have you ever attended any management training course?

1. Yes _____ 2. No _____

If YES where? _____

What was the course? _____

How long did it last? _____

11. Please tick the one statement that most fully represents your feelings about your job?

1. A dominant factor in my life and a primary source of satisfaction _____
2. A distinctly interesting and important part of my life _____
3. An activity separate from the rest of my life and one which must not be allowed to dominate _____
4. A source of demand and pressure that affects other activities _____

12. Do you think that your present job gives you the opportunity to use your abilities to the full?

(Please tick one answer only)

1. Completely _____ 2. To a great extent _____
3. To some extent _____ 4. To a minor extent _____
5. Not at all _____

13. Do you belong to a professional association?

1. Yes _____ 2. No _____

If YES how often do you attend this professional body?

(Please tick the one appropriate category)

1. Quite often _____ 2. Seldom _____
3. Never _____

14. Do you drive to work?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

15. Do you discuss matters other than business with the people you work with?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

16. How many hours do you work on company business per week?
(Including work at home, in the evening, at weekends, during lunch breaks etc).

17. Sex

1. Male _____

2. Female _____

18. Age _____

19. Place of Birth

1. West Bank _____

2. Gaza _____

3. Jordan _____

4. Other (specify) _____

20. Marital Status

1. Single _____

2. Married _____

3. Divorced _____

4. Widowed _____

21. Number of Children _____

22. What is/was your father's principal occupation?
(Please tick one answer only)

1. Farmer _____

2. Merchant _____

3. Lawyer _____

4. Government employee _____

5. Teacher, lecturer,
instructor _____

6. Other (specify) _____

MANAGEMENT AND THE ENVIRONMENT

23. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?
(Please tick one answer only)

- | | | | |
|--------------|-------|------------|-------|
| 1. Always | _____ | 2. Usually | _____ |
| 3. Sometimes | _____ | 4. Seldom | _____ |
| 5. Never | _____ | | |

24. How frequently in your work environment are subordinates afraid to express disagreements with you or your superiors?

- | | | | |
|--------------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| 1. Very frequently | _____ | 2. Frequently | _____ |
| 3. Sometimes | _____ | 4. Seldom | _____ |
| 5. Very Seldom | _____ | | |

25. If you are faced with a functional problem, who is the one person you go to for help and whose thoughts and opinions do you value most highly?
(Please tick one answer only)

1. Owner or member of the board of directors of business or firm _____
2. Working colleague _____
3. Member of immediate family (e.g. father, brother) _____
4. Member of the extended family _____
5. Friend _____
6. Other (specify) _____

26. Because of your position in this organisation, what do you consider to be the main attributes (if any) which are expected of you by the community?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

27. Because of your position in this organisation, what do you consider to be the main attributes which are expected of you by your organisation?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

28. Because of your position in this organisation, what do you consider to be the most important attributes (if any) which are expected of you by your employees?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

29. Could you please mention some of the ideas, programmes, or changes which as a manager you would like to make or implement but find it difficult or impossible to do because of the values and traditions (in and outside the organisation).

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

30. Do you feel that your work as a manager influences your life, family life, and community life?

1. Yes _____ 2. No _____

31. If the answer to the above is YES, please give some examples.

32. What do you consider to be the main internal problems or obstacles (problems within the organisation which you can control) you face as a manager at this present time? Please give some examples.

Internal Problems

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Examples:

33. What do you consider to be the main external problems or obstacles (problems outside the organisation and you cannot control) which you face as a manager at this present time? Please give some examples.

External Problems

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Examples:

34. In your opinion what do you consider to be the main socio-cultural pressures (pressures from the wider society) that interfere with your work as a manager? Please write your answer according to the degree of influence. Give examples.

1. _____
2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Examples:

35. In your opinion what do you consider to be main business and social communities pressures which interfere with your work as a manager? Please write your answer according to their degree of influence. Give examples.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Examples:

36. The description below applies to four different types of managers. Please indicate the one to which you think you most closely correspond.

Manager A.

Usually makes his decisions promptly and asks for them to be carried out without question.

Manager B

Usually make decisions promptly but before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his subordinate. He gives reasons for his decisions and answers whatever questions subordinates may have.

Manager C

Usually consults with his subordinates before he reaches his decisions. He listens to their advice, consider it, and then announces his decisions. He expects all to work loyally to implement his decisions whether in accordance with the advice they gave or not.

Manager D

Usually calls a meeting for subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. He puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. He accepts the majority view as the final decision.

RELATIONSHIPS

37. Do you think that mediation exists in the West Bank?

1 Yes _____

2. No _____

38. If the answer is YES, what in your opinion are the three main reasons responsible for the mediation in the West Bank?

1. To get things done

2. To get things done faster

3. To do things which cannot be done within the law

4. Mediation is merely a tradition

5. Other (specify) _____

39. In relation to the previous question, how do you think mediation helps or hinders you in performing your duties?

1. YES - mediation is a help

2. NO - mediation is a hindrance

40. Do you think that nepotism exists in West Bank businesses?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

41. In your opinion do you think that bribes exist in West Bank businesses?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

42. If the answer to the previous question is YES, do you approve of the use of bribes?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

43. What in your opinion makes the ideal employee?
(Please indicate one quality only)

1. Loyal to the firm _____

2. Loyal to the job _____

3. Loyal to you as manager _____

4. Others (specify) _____

44. If asked to name the main personal trait and characteristic which contributes to the success of a manager, what in your opinion would be most important one?

ATTITUDES, BELIEFS, CULTURE

45. Have you ever been late for work in the past 12 months?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

46. If the answer to the previous question is YES, what in your opinion was the main factor causing this lateness?

1. Family matter _____

2. Slept late _____

3. Transport problems _____

4. Poor weather _____

5. External problems outwith your control e.g. military road block, check points, curfews etc. _____

6. Social activities, e.g. lunch invitations, visiting friends, social events _____

7. Other (specify) _____

47. Which of the following statements would best describe your attitude towards time?
(Please indicate one answer only)

1. Time is very valuable (It is gold) _____

2. Time is valuable (It is money) _____

3. Time has a low value _____

4. Time has now value at all in my opinion _____

5. Other (specify) _____

48. Do you carry life insurance?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

49. If your answer to the previous question is NO, which one of the following best describes your main reason for not carrying life insurance?

1. Personal wealth and financial security _____

2. Immediate family wealth and financial security
e.g. father's wealth _____

3. Do not believe in the financial benefits or usefulness of insurance _____

4. The country social security system is generous and adequate _____

5. Religious reasons only _____

6. Other (specify) _____

50. How do you feel about the following changes?
(Please tick the answer which most closely reflects your opinion)

Females working as managers

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly favour _____ | 2. Favour _____ |
| 3. Oppose _____ | 4. Strongly oppose _____ |

How many female managers are employed by your firm? _____

Females working as employees

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly favour _____ | 2. Favour _____ |
| 3. Oppose _____ | 4. Strongly oppose _____ |

How many of your employees are female? _____

An increase in business automation and technology

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly favour _____ | 2. Favour _____ |
| 3. Oppose _____ | 4. Strongly oppose _____ |

If the answer to the above question is either 3 or 4, please explain why.

The need to gain more freedom and independence from customs and traditions

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly favour _____ | 2. Favour _____ |
| 3. Oppose _____ | 4. Strongly oppose _____ |

51. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following attitudinal statements.

To indicate how well each statement describes your attitude, write a number in the space beside each statement based on the following scale:

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------|
| 1 = Strongly agree | 2 = Agree |
| 3 = Neutral | 4 = Disagree |
| 5 = Strongly disagree | |

Response No.

- | | |
|---|-------|
| 1. No point in making long range plans due to economic and political instability | _____ |
| 2. The future cannot be predicted and therefore cannot be controlled | _____ |
| 3. Formal training helps a manager to perform his job satisfactorily | _____ |
| 4. When considering an employee for promotion, seniority should be given greater weight than merit | _____ |
| 5. Policy, goals, objectives should be carefully explained to everyone in the organisation | _____ |
| 6. Employees should feel free to discuss things which are important to them with their immediate boss | _____ |
| 7. Criticism and advice from subordinates should always be welcomed | _____ |
| 8. The boss should give his subordinates only the information which is necessary for them to do their immediate tasks | _____ |
| 9. A good boss should give details and complete instructions to his subordinates rather than giving them merely general information and depending on their initiative to work out the details | _____ |
| 10. Thinking of alternative ways and methods by employees in order to solve certain problems should always be welcomed | _____ |
| 11. Managers should help employees with their work when necessary | _____ |
| 12. Employees lose respect for a manager who asks them for advice before he/she makes a final decision | _____ |
| 13. Certain kinds of working conflicts are not only inevitable but also desirable if effectively managed. (Conflicts are a healthy phenomenon of effective management) | _____ |

14. The use of rewards (pay, promotion etc) and punishments (failure to promote etc) is the best way to get subordinates to work effectively _____

15. Promotion from within the firm in order to fill a vacancy is better than promotion from outside the firm _____

52. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following belief statements. To indicate how well each statement describes your belief, write a number in the space beside each statement based on the following scale:

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------|
| 1 = Strongly agree | 2 = Agree |
| 3 = Neutral | 4 = Disagree |
| 5 = Strongly disagree | |

Response No.

1. Everyone in business should be treated alike and equally with no favourites at all _____

2. Personal problems and grievances of employees should be a matter of direct concern to their companies or firms _____

3. Managers should have tolerance for problems, complaints, and protests from employees _____

4. Social issues should not be discussed in business _____

5. The activities of charitable and social agencies should be supported by business companies and firms _____

6. Family, social, or financial status are necessary elements for advancement or success _____

7. Knowing influential people is necessary in order to progress quickly inside the firm _____

8. Staying with one firm for as long a time as possible is usually the best way to get ahead in that firm _____

9. In general, the best manager in a firm is the one who has been with the firm for the longest time possible _____

10. Decisions made by individuals are usually of higher quality than decisions made by groups (committees) _____

11. A large organisation is a more desirable place to work than working in small size organisations _____

12. Company rules and procedures should not be broken even when a manager thinks that it is in the company's interest to do so _____

NEEDS

53. People differ in what is important to them. In this section, I have listed a number of needs which people might want. As a manager, would you please indicate how much importance is attached to each of the following needs. To indicate the degree of importance please write a number in the blank beside each student based on the following scale.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 = of utmost importance | 2 = very important |
| 3 = of moderate importance | 4 = of little importance |
| 5 = of no importance | |

<u>How Important</u>	<u>Response No.</u>
1. Having the security of knowing that you will be able to work for your firm as long as you wish	_____
2. Living in a desirable area for your and your family	_____
3. Working with people who co operate well with each other	_____
4. Having a good working relationship with your colleagues and subordinates	_____
5. Having a job which gives you sufficient time for your personal and family life and community life	_____
6. Working for a firm which is regarded in your community as successful and acceptable	_____
7. Having considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job	_____
8. Having challenging work from which you get a personal sense of accomplishment	_____

SATISFACTION

54. As compared to what you need, how satisfied are you at present with the following needs. To indicate how well you are satisfied with each need, write a number in the space beside each statement based on the following scale:

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| 1 = very satisfied | 2 = satisfied |
| 3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied | 4 = dissatisfied |
| 5 = very dissatisfied | |

<u>Need satisfaction</u>	<u>Response No.</u>
1. Job security	_____
2. The extent to which you live in an area desirable to you and your family	_____
3. The extent to which people you work with cooperate with one another	_____
4. Your working relationship with your colleagues and subordinates	_____
5. The extent to which your job leaves you sufficient time for your personal life, family life, and community life	_____
6. Firms reputation in the community as being successful and acceptable	_____
7. The freedom you have in adopting you own approach to your job	_____
8. The challenge of work. The extent to which you get a personal sense of accomplishment from it	_____

55. Is there anything else you would like to discuss in relation to this subject? Please clarify.

56. Would you like your name to be mentioned in the acknowledgement section of this Thesis?

1. Yes _____ 2. No _____

If YES what is your full name?

Thank you for your cooperation.
Samir Abuznaid

APPENDIX 2

The Arabic Translation of the Interview Schedule

الإدارة في الضفة الغربية إجهاات ، معتقدات و ثقافه

عزيزي المدير:
إن القصد من هذا البحث هو إعداد رسالة الدكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال من جامعة
جلاسكو- سكوتلاندا. والبحث سيشمل المواضيع الآتية:

- معلومات أساسيه .
- الإدارة والبيئة .
- العلاقات .
- مراقف ، معتقدات و ثقافات إداريه .
- إحتياجات .
- مدى الرضا .

ستجد في العديد من الأسئلة المعطاه عددا من الإجابات البديلة عليك إختيار الإجابة
المناسبه ، بينما في أقسام اخرى عليك الإشارة لرقم الإجابة التي تنطبق ورأيك ، وفي
أخرى عليك الإدلاء بالإجابة التي تتلائم ووجهة نظرك. إن هذا الاستبيان ليس طويلا
كما يظهر ، والمعلومات التي ستدلى بها هي في غاية الشكر والتقدير ، حيث ستسهم في
تطوير وتعزيز المعرفة في هذا المجال .

شكرا لكم وبأمل أن يحظى هذا الاستبيان بدعمكم واهتمامكم .

الباحث

سمير أبو زينه
قسم إدارة الأعمال
جامعة جلاسكو - سكوتلاندا
المملكة المتحدة

معلومات أساسية

=====

- ١- نوعية العمل _____
- ٢- عمر المؤسسة _____
- ٣- عدد العاملين بالمؤسسة _____
- ٤- مدة التحاقكم بالمؤسسة _____

٥- وضعك كمدير : أ - مالك - ب - مستخدم - ج - غير ذلك

- ٦- طريقة حملك على هذه الوظيفة (أرجوا اختيار أجابة واحدة فقط)
 - ١ - بواسطة الإعلان التجاري - ٢ - عن طريق الاتصال الشخصي
 - ٢ - الاتصال العائلي - ٤ - مكاتب الاستخدام
 - ٥ - عن طريق دفع مبلغ من المال أو غيره كالرشوة مثلا .
 - ٦ - غير ذلك (وضح) _____

٧- آخر تحصيل علمي (أرجوا اختيار أجابة واحدة فقط)
الشهادة / الدبلوم

- ١ - المرحلة الابتدائية
- ٢ - المرحلة الثانوية
- ٣ - مدرسة مهنية
- ٤ - كلية مجتمع متوسطة (سستان بعد الثانوية العامة)
- ٥ - جامعة (أربع سنوات بعد الثانوية العامة) - ٦ - غير ذلك (حدد) _____

٨) إذا كانت إجابتك للسؤال السابق عدا عن رقم (١) فما هو أو ماذا كان تخصصك انذاك ؟

- ١ - إدارة - ٢ - محاسبة - ٣ - هندسة - ٤ - اداب _____
- ٥ - قانون - ٦ - علوم - ٧ - غير ذلك (حدد) _____
- ٩) مجموع اللغات التي تتكلمها بطلاقة
 - ١ - لغة واحدة فقط _____
 - ٢ - لغتان _____
 - ٣ - أكثر من لغتين _____

- ١٠- هل سبق وأن التحقت بدورة تدريبية أيا كان نوعها ؟
 - _____ ١ - نعم
 - _____ ٢ - لا
- إذا كانت الاجابة نعم ، فاين كان انعقاد الدورة _____
- طبيعة الدورة أو نوعها _____
- مدة انعقاد الدورة (طيلة الدورة) _____

١١- أرجو اختيار العبارة التي تتناسب وشعورك تجاه وظيفتك ؟

- ١ . وظيفتي بمثابة عامل مسيطر على حياتي وهي المصدر الأساسي لقناعاتي .

- ٢ . وظيفتي ممتعة وميزه وهي بمثابة جزء هام من حياتي .

- ٣ . اعتبر وظيفتي بمثابة نشاط منفصل عن بقية حياتي حيث لا اسمح بان تسيطر وظيفتي عل حياتي الخاصة .

- ٤ . اعتبر وظيفي مصدرا للمضايقات والمتطلبات حيث تؤثر على بقية نشاطاتي .

١٢- هل تعتقد أن وظيفتك العالية تتيح لك الفرصة أو المجال الكافي لاستخدام كافة قدراتك استخداما امثلا (اختر اجابة فقط)

_____ ١- كليا _____ ٢- إلى حد كبير _____ ٥- لا على الإطلاق

_____ ٢- إلى حد ما _____ ٤- لدرجة بسيطة

١٣ هل تنتمي إلى جمعية أو مؤسسة مهنية ؟

_____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا

إذا كانت الاجابة نعم فما مدى زيارتك لهذه المؤسسة أو الجمعية المهنية ؟
(ارجو اختيار اجابة واحدة فقط)

_____ ١- غالبا _____ ٢- نادرا

_____ ٣- لا لم يحصل ذلك .

١٤ هل تقود سيارة لعمالك ؟

_____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا

١٥ هل تناقش مع زملائك في العمل أي أمور عدا عن الأمور التي تتعلق بالعمل ؟

_____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا

١٦ مجموع ساعات العمل التي تعملها اسبوعيا بما في ذلك العمل اثناء عطلة نهاية الاسبوع اثناء المساء وفي البيت ؟ _____

١٧ الجنس : _____ ١- ذكر _____ ٢- أنثى

١٨ العمر : _____

١٩ مكان الولادة : _____

_____ ١- الضفة الغربية .

_____ ٢- قطاع غزة .

_____ ٣- الأردن .

_____ ٤- غير ذلك (أرجو التحديد) _____

٢٠ الحالة الاجتماعية :

_____ ١- اعزب _____ ٢- متزوج _____ ٣- مطلق _____ ٤- أرمل

٢١ عدد الأطفال _____

٢٢ ما هي أو ماذا كانت مهنة والدك الرئيسية ؟ اختر اجابة واحدة فقط ،

_____ ١- مزارع _____ ٢- تاجر

_____ ٣- محامي _____ ٤- موظف حكومي

_____ ٥- مدرس ، معلم محاضر _____ ٦- غير ذلك حدد _____

الإدارة والبيئة

=====

- ٢٣ كم تشعور بالعصبية أثناء عملك ؟ اختر اجابة واحدة فقط .
 - ١ . دائما
 - ٢ . عادة
 - ٣ . احيانا
 - ٤ . نادرا
 - ٥ . لم ولن اشعر بالعصبية أثناء العمل

٢٤ إلى أي مدى يخشى تابعوك التعبير عن معارضتهم لك :

- _____ ١ . كثيرا جدا
 _____ ٢ . كثيرا
 _____ ٣ . احيانا
 _____ ٤ . نادرا
 _____ ٥ . نادرا جدا
 ٢٥ لو واجهتك مشكلة ادارية ، من هو الشخص الذي ستلجأ إليه لطلب العون والمساعدة والذي تحتزمون آراءه وافكاره لدرجه عالية جدا (اختر اجابة واحدة فقط) .

- _____ ١ صاحب المؤسسة أو عضو من اعضاء مجلس الاداره
 _____ ٢ زميلك في العمل
 _____ ٣ عضو ذو صلة عائلية مباشرة (أب ، أخ ، اخت مثلا)
 _____ ٤ عضو من عائلتي الممتدة (الحولة)
 _____ ٥ صديق .

٢٦ بحكم مركزكم في هذه المؤسسة ما هي الثلاثة أشياء الرئيسية التي يتوقعها منكم المجتمع حسب رأيكم ؟

- _____ ١
 _____ ٢
 _____ ٣

٢٧ بحكم مركزكم في هذه المؤسسة ما هي الثلاثة أشياء الرئيسية التي تتوقعها منكم المؤسسة نفسها ؟

- _____ ١
 _____ ٢
 _____ ٣

٢٨ بحكم مركزكم في هذه المؤسسة ما هي أشياء الرئيسية التي يتوقعها منكم العاملون حسب رأيكم ؟

- _____ ١
 _____ ٢
 _____ ٣

٢٩ أرجو التكرم بذكر بعض الأفكار والبرامج أو التغييرات التي ترغبون في تنفيذها وذلك بسبب مركزكم في هذه المؤسسة إلا إنكم تجدون صعوبة أو استحالة في عمل ذلك نتيجة للعادات والتقاليد والقيم السائدة داخل وخارج المؤسسة .

- _____ ١
 _____ ٢
 _____ ٣
 _____ ٤

٣٠ هل تشعربأن عملك كمدير يورث على حياتك الشخصية أو العائلية أو الاجتماعية ؟
 _____ ١ . نعم
 _____ ٢ . لا

(٣١) إذا كانت الإجابة نعم أرجو اعطاء بعض الأمثلة ؟

(٣٢) ما هي أهم المشاكل و العوائق الداخلية التي تواجهها في عملك في هذه المؤسسة ؟
(المشاكل الداخلية هي التي تحدث داخل المؤسسة بحيث يمكن التحكم فيها) أرجو اعطاء بعض الأمثلة .

المشاكل الداخلية

أمثلة :

(٣٣) ما هي أهم المشاكل والعوائق الخارجية التي تؤثر على عملك كمدير في هذه المؤسسة (المشاكل الخارجية لا يمكن التحكم فيها) أرجو اعطاء بعض الأمثلة .

المشاكل الخارجية

أمثلة :

(٣٤) حسب اعتقادك ما هي أهم العوقات أو الضغوطات الاجتماعية والثقافية التي تؤثر على عملك كمدير (العوقات التي مصدرها المجتمع بصورة عامة) أرجو ترتيب هذه العوقات والضغوطات حسب درجة تأثيرها على عملك أرجو اعطاء أمثلة إن أمكن

أمثلة :

(٣٥) حسب اعتقادك ما هي ضغوطات العمل / أو الضغوطات الاجتماعية التي تتدخل في عملك كمدير أرجو ترتيب هذه الضغوطات حسب تأثيرها على عملك أو اعطاء أمثلة إن أمكن .

أمثلة :

(٣٦) ينطبق الوصف الاتي على اربع أنواع من المدراء من فضلك الاشارة الى الوصف الذي يطبق عليك كمدير حسب اعتقادك .

- _____ مدير أ) يتخذ قراراته بسرعة ويبلغها الى تابعيه بصورة حازمه وواضحة ويتوقع من العاملين تنفيذها دون استفسار أو تساؤل .
- _____ مدير ب) يتخذ قراراته عادة بسرعة كبيرة ولكن قبل المضي في تنفيذها يحاول عادة شرح القرارات كاملة لتابعيه موضحا الاسباب لاتخاذ مثل هذه القرارات ويجيب على اية تساؤلات أو استفسارات قد تطرح من طرف التابعين .
- _____ مدير ج) يتخذ قراراته عادة بعد استشارة التابعين حيث يستمع لمصالحهم وتأخذها بعين الاعتبار وبعد ذلك يعلن عن قرأته حيث يتوقع من الجميع بعد ذلك أن يعمل بولاء من أجل تطبيق هذه القرارات سواءا كان القرار متفقا مع ما أبدوه من رأي أو نصيحة أم لا .
- _____ مدير د) يدعو تابعيه عادة لاجتماع قبل اتخاذ أي قرار هام حيث يعرض المشكلة عليهم ويدعوهم لمناقشتها حيث يقبل وجهة نظر الاغلبية على أساس انها القرار النهائي .
- العلاقات

=====

- (٣٧) هل تعتقد أن الوساطة (الواسطات) ممارسة في الضفة الغربية ؟
- _____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا
- (٣٨) إذا كانت اجابتك بنعم فما هي حسب اعتقادك الاسباب الرئيسية الثلاثة التي تقف وراء ممارسة أسلوب الوساطات في الضفة الغربية .
- _____ ١- لانجاز الاشياء .
- _____ ٢- لانجاز الاشياء بصورة اسرع .
- _____ ٣- لانجاز الاشياء التي لا يمكن انجازها في نطاق القانون (اشياء مخالفة للقانون)
- _____ ٤- الوساطة ما هي الا مجرد عادات وتقاليد .
- _____ ٥- غير ذلك (ارجو التحديد) _____
- (٣٩) لا حقا للسؤال الاسبق وحسب اعتقادك هل تعتقد أن الوساطة تساعد أم تعرقل عملك كمدير .
- _____ ١- نعم ، الوساطة تساعد في تادية عملي ،
- _____ ٢- لا ، الوساطة تعرقل تادية مهامي .
- (٤٠) هل تعتقد أن أسلوب تفضيل الاقارب مارس في الاعمال في الضفة الغربية .
- _____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا
- (٤١) هل تعتقد أن الرشاوي ممارسة في الضفة الغربية ولا سيما في مجال الاعمال .
- _____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا
- (٤٢) إذا كانت اجابتك للسؤال السابق بنعم فهل تصادق على اتباع أسلوب الرشاوي ؟
- _____ ١- نعم _____ ٢- لا

٤٣) العامل أو الموظف المثالي في نظرك هو (أرجو اختيار صفة واحدة فقط) .

١- الأكثر ولاء للمؤسسة .

٢- الأكثر ولاء للوظيفة .

٣- الأكثر ولاء لك كمدير .

٤- غير ذلك (أرجو التحديد) _____

٤٤) إذا طلب منك وصف ميزة واحدة والتي تعتبرها سراً في نجاح أي مدير فما هي هذه الميزة ؟

اجابات ، معتقدات ، ثقافات ادارية

=====

٤٥) هل سبق وأن تأخرت عن عملك خلال الاثني عشر شهراً الماضية

١- نعم _____ ٢- لا _____

٤٦) إذا كانت الاجابة للسؤال السابق بنعم فما هو حسب اعتقادك السبب / الاسباب الرئيسية التي تجعلك عادة أو احيانا تتأخر عن عملك :

١- المسائل العائلية .

٢- التأخر في النوم .

٣- مشاكل المواصلات .

٤- الملل السني .

٥- مشاكل خارجية لا يمكن التحكم فيها كالوажر ونقاط التفتيش العسكرية ومنع التجوال مثلاً .

٦- نشاطات اجتماعية كالدعوات للغداء ، زيارة الاصدقاء ، والاحداث الاجتماعية الاخرى .

٧- غير ذلك (أرجو التحديد) _____

٤٧) حسب اعتقادك ، أي من العبارات الاتية تعبر عن موقفك تجاه الوقت (أرجو اختيار اجابة واحدة فقط .

١- الوقت ثمين جداً (انه من ذهب) .

٢- الوقت ثمين (انه من نقود)

٣- الوقت ذو قيمة متدنية .

٤- لا قيمة للوقت ابداً في نظري .

٥- غير ذلك (أرجو التحديد) _____

٤٨) هل لديك تامين على الحياة ؟

١- نعم _____ ٢- لا _____

٤٩) إذا كانت اجابتك للسؤال السابق بلا فما هو السبب الرئيسي في عدم حصولك على تامين على الحياة (اختر اجابة واحدة فقط) .

١- بسبب الفنى الشخصي والضمان المالى الذي اتمتع به .

٢- بسبب الفنى والضمان المالى الذي تتمتع به عائلتي كعنى الوالد مثلاً .

٣- لا أو من بالتامين أو الفوائد المالية الناجمة عنه .

٤- نظام الضمان الاجتماعى هنا نشط وكافى لذا لا اري حاجة للتامين .

٥- اسباب دينية بعته .

٦- غير ذلك (أرجو التحديد) _____

٥٠) ما هو شعوركم نحو التغييرات الآتية (اختر الإجابة التي تتطابق ورايك

(١١) عمل الأثاث كمحيرات

١. احيى بشده . _____
٢. احيى _____
٣. اعارض _____
٤. اعارض بشده . _____
كم عدد الأثاث المديرات في المؤسسة التي تعمل فيها ؟ _____

(٢) عمل الأثاث كعاملات

١. احيى بشده . _____
٢. احيى _____
٣. اعارض _____
٤. اعارض بشده . _____
كم عدد الأثاث العاملات في المؤسسة التي تعمل فيها ؟ _____

(٣) زيادة إدخال التكنولوجيا والمكننة في الأعمال

١. احيى بشده . _____
٢. احيى _____
٣. اعارض _____
٤. اعارض بشده . _____
إذا كانت إجابتك لهذا السؤال ب (٣ أو ٤) فما هو السبب في ذلك

(٤) الحاجة لكسب المزيد من الحرية والاستقلال من العادات والتقاليد السائدة :

١. احيى بشده . _____
٢. احيى _____
٣. اعارض _____
٤. اعارض بشده . _____

٥١) — ما مدى موافقتك أو معارضتك للعبارات الآتية ؟ أوجوا الإجابة بوضع الرقم المناسب في المكان المناسب مستخدماً السلم الاتي في اجابتيك

١ = ١ أو اوافق جداً
٢ = ٢ أو اوافق
٣ = ٣ محايد
٤ = ٤ لا اوافق
٥ = ٥ لا اوافق على الإطلاق

رقم الإجابة

١. لا داعي لعمل خطط طويلة الأجل بسبب عدم الاستقرار السياسي والاقتصادي. _____
٢. من الصعب التنبؤ بالمستقبل لذا من الصعب التحكم فيه. _____
٣. التخريب الرسمي يساعد المدير على تآدية عمله بشكل مرضي. _____
٤. عامل الاندية أهم من عامل الجدارة في تحديد ترقية الموظف _____
٥. بشكل عام يجب أن توضع سياسات وأهداف المؤسسة بكل حرص لجميع العاملين في المؤسسة. _____
٦. ضرورة شعور العاملين بالحرية في مناقشة الأمور التي تهمهم مع مسؤولهم المباشر _____
٧. يجب أن يلقى النقد والضيعة من قبل العاملين بالترحيب دائماً. _____
٨. يجب على المدير ترويد تابعيه فقط بالمعلومات التي تهمهم في تنفيذ مهامهم الانية _____
٩. المدير الجيد هو الذي يزود تابعيه بكل التفاصيل والتعليمات بدلاً من إعطائهم فقط التفاصيل والمعلومات العامة تاركاً لهم الحرية في المبادأة وإيجاد التفاصيل لانفسهم. _____
١٠. يجب أن تلتقى البعائل والأفكار على المشاكل بالترحيب دائماً. _____
١١. يجب على المدراء مساعدة العاملين في القيام بأعمالهم وذلك عند الحاجة. _____
١٢. يعتقد المدير عادة احترام العاملين وذلك حينما يطلب منهم النصيحة أو المشورة في في أمور ما قبل أن يتخذ هو نفسه قراراً فيها. _____
١٣. بعض صراعات وخلافات العمل ليست حتمية فقط بل مرغوبة من قبل الأطراف المتصارعة وخاصة إذا ما استغلت الخلافات بصورة جيدة (الخلافات ظاهرة صحية إذا ما استغلت بصورة جيدة). _____
١٤. استخدام المكافآت (كالمكافآت والترقيات) ثم استخدام اساليب العقاب (كعدم الترقية مثلا) هو أفضل الوسائل لجعل العاملين يعملون بكفاءة. _____
١٥. الترقية من داخل المؤسسة لتغطية وظيفة شاغرة هو أفضل من الترقية من خارج المؤسسة. _____

٥٢) ما مدى موافقتك أو معارضتك للعبارة الآتية ؟ أرجو الإجابة بوضع الرقم المناسب في المكان المناسب بجانب كل عبارة مستخدماً السلم الاتي في اجابتك ؟

أوافق	= ٢	أوافق جداً	= ١
لا أوافق	= ٤	محايد	= ٣
		لا أوافق على الإطلاق	= ٥

رقم الإجابة

- ١ . يجب أن يعامل الافراد في العمل بالتساوي ودون محابة على الإطلاق
- ٢ . يجب أن تعطي المؤسسات والشركات الاهتمام للملائم لمشاكل وتطلعات العاملين
- ٣ . يجب على المدراء التسامح تجاه مشاكل واحتياجات وتطلعات العاملين .
- ٤ . يجب عدم مناقشه الأمور الاجتماعية في العمل
- ٥ . يجب على المؤسسات والشركات دعم نشاطات الجمعيات الاجتماعية والمثيرة
- ٦ . المكانة العائلية والمالية والاجتماعية للعائلة هي عناصر ضرورية من أجل التقدم والنجاح
- ٧ . وجود المعارف امر ضروري من أجل الرقي بسرعته في المؤسسات .
- ٨ . البقاء في مؤسسة واحدة لمدة طويلة يعتبر أفضل وسيلة للوصول إلى أعلى المراكز فيها .
- ٩ . بشكل عام المدير المفضل في المؤسسة هو المدير الذي يخدم فيها لا طول مدة ممكنة .
- ١٠ . القرارات التي توضع من قبل الافراد عادة أفضل من القرارات التي توضع من قبل الجماعات كاللجان مثلاً .
- ١١ . العمل في مؤسسة كبيرة مرغوب أكثر من العمل في مؤسسة صغيرة .
- ١٢ . يجب عدم كسر قوانين الشركة وأجرائها حتى ولو اعتقد المدراء بأن كسر القوانين والأجراءات هو لصالح المؤسسة

الاحتياجات

=====

٥٣) يختلف الافراد عادة في احتياجاتهم ومتطلباتهم ، ما مدى أهمية كل من الأمور التالية بالنسبة لك . أرجو الإجابة بوضع الرقم المناسب في المكان المناسب بجانب كل عبارة مستخدما السلم الاتي في جانبك :

١= غاية الأهمية بالنسبة لى . ٢= مهم جدا .
٣= مهم ذو أهمية عادية . ٤= ذو أهمية قليلة .
٥= غير مهم .

مدى الأهمية

١ . الأمان الوظيفي حيث بإمكانى العمل فى المؤسسة قدر ماأريد

٢ . أن اسكن فى منطقة مرغوبة لى ولعائلتى .

٣ . العمل مع اناس يتعاونون مع بعضهم البعض بصورة ممتازة

٤ . التمتع بعلاقات عمل جيدة مع العاملين معى .

٥ . الحصول على وظيفة تترك لى الوقت الكافى من أجل حياتى الشخصية والعائلية والاجتماعية

٦ . أن اعمل فى مؤسسة ينتظر إليها المجتمع على أساس أنها مؤسسة ناجحة ومقبولة

٧ . الحصول على الحرية الكافية فى تبني نهجى وأسلوبى الخاص فى الوظيفة .

٨ . تحديات العمل - وجود عمل فيه نوع من التحدي بالنسبة لى حيث أشعر من خلاله بالإنجاز

مدى الرضا

=====

٥٤) مقارنة احتياجاتك ، إلى أى مدى أنت راض في الوقت الحاضر عن الاحتياجات الآتية . أرجو الإجابة بوضع الرقم المناسب في المكان المناسب بجانب كل عبارة مستخدما السلم الآتي في

احتياك :

١= راضى جدا .

٤= غير راضى .

٢= راضى .

٣= محايد .

رقم الاجابة

الرضا

١. الامان الوظيفي
٢. مدى ملائمة المكان الذي تسكن فيه لك ولعائلتك .
٣. مدى تعاون الافراد الذين تعمل معهم مع بعضهم البعض .
٤. علاقتك مع من تعمل معهم .
٥. مدى اتاحة عملك الوقت الكافى لك من أجل حياتك الشخصية والعائلية والاجتماعية .
٦. سمعة المؤسسة التى تعمل بها في المجتمع
٧. الحرية في تبني نهجك الخاص في الوظيفة
٨. تحديات العمل والذي الذي تحقق فيه انجازا لك .

٥٥) هل ترون أن هناك أى أمر آخر أو فكره إضافيه أخرى تريدون التعبير عنها فيما يتعلق بهذا الموضوع أرجو الإفصاح عنها .

٥٦) هل ترغب في ذكر اسمك في القسم الخاص بالشكر والعرفان في هذه الرسالة .

١. لا

٢. نعم

إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم فما هو اسمك الكامل

شكرا لتعاونكم

سمير أبو زنيد

APPENDIX 3

**Letter requesting an interview with Nablus Post Office
Manager**

APPENDIX 4

Copy of a secrecy contract used in business

PALESTINE MEDICAL
CO.

Al-Bireh - Jerusalem Street
Tel. 2581 P. O. Box 403



شركة فلسطين لصناعة الأدوية
المساهمة الخصوصية المحدودة
البيرو - شارع القدس
تلفون ٢٥٨١ ص.ب ٤٠٣

تعهداً وقراراً

- ١ - انا الموقع ادناه لكوني أعمل في شركة فلسطين لصناعة الادوية المساهمة الخصوصية المحدودة مقابل اجراً اتقاضاه منها أتعهد بأن احافظ على اسرار الشركة المذكورة محافظة تامة واكيدة وكاملة ولا انفي اي سر من اسرارها او اسرار العمل لديها او اسرار مبيعاتها واتاجها ، كما انني أتعهد بالمحافظة على موادها واجهزتها وعلى كل ما يتعلق بعملتي في الشركة واي اكتشاف قد اكتشفه نتيجة عملي فيها واثناءه وما ينتج عن عملي كما انني احول بهذا الى الشركة جميع الحقوق والفوائد في اي عمل اقوم به لصالح الشركة .
- ٢ - كما أتعهد ايضاً بأن اقوم بكل ما هو مطلوب مني من قبل الشركة ولها بقصد تنفيذ اهداف وغايات الشركة وأقر كذلك بأن جميع ما أعمله واقدمه واتجه في الشركة هو حق للشركة ولها بقصد تتصرف به كما تراه مناسباً .
- ٣ - وأتعهد بالآلا أكشف للآخرين افراد او جماعات او مؤسسات او شركات او اية شخصية اعتبارية اسرار عملي في تلك الشركة او اسرار مبيعاتها او اسرار ما تنتجه او اية معلومات عن عملي وعن كل ما تقوم الشركة بتصنيعه وعن ما لديها من اجهزة او ماكنات او مخططات عمل وما يتعلق بالتوزيع والنواحي المالية والملاقات التجارية والصناعية وما يتعلق بربائتها سواء كان ذلك خلال فترة عملي في الشركة او بعدها او في اية فترة لاحقة واعتبر كل المعلومات التي توفرت لدي اثناء عملي في الشركة او بعدها او في اية فترة وبسبب ملكاً خاصاً وخالصاً للشركة وحقاً من حقوقها دون ان تكون الشركة ملزمة بدفع اي مبلغ لي مقابل ذلك .
- ٤ - اقر واتعهد بأنني في حالة مخالفتي لهذا التعهد نصاً وروحاً ملزم بدفع راتب ستة اشهر للشركة كمعطل وضرر متفق عليه سلفاً واعتبر نفسي كذلك مسؤولاً مسؤولاً كاملة تجاه الشركة في حالة اخلالي لهذا التعهد .

وعليه اوقع حسب الاصول

التوقيع

APPENDIX 5

**An English translation of the secrecy contract shown in
Appendix 4**

Palestine Medical Co.
Al-Birah-Jerusalem Street
PO Box 403

Tel. 2581

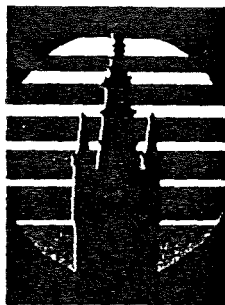
Undertaking and Declaration

1. I, the undersigned, an employee of the Palestine Medical Co. Ltd., for a salary received from the company, undertake to keep in the strictest confidence the secrets of the above mentioned company: not to disclose any of its secrets, or secrets connected with employment or secrets connected with its sales and production. I also undertake to keep secret the material and equipment of the company, everything related to my employment with the company, any discovery which I may make as a result of and during the period of my employment with the company, and anything resulting from my employment. I also hereby transfer to the company all rights and profits resulting from any work I may undertake for the company.
2. I also undertake to do all that is required from me by and for the company intended to implement the objectives and aims of the company, and also acknowledge that everything that I do, propose, or produce in the company is the right and property of the company to dispose of in the way it deems appropriate.
3. I undertake not to disclose to others, individuals, groups, institutions, companies, or any corporate body, secrets of my employment in this company, secrets connected with its production, any information concerning my work, or anything manufactured by the company, of the apparatus, machines, work plans possessed by the company, and anything in respect of distribution, financial affairs, and industrial and commercial relations, and anything related to its customers either during or after the period of my employment with the company or at any future time. I regard all information obtained during or after my employment in the company or at any time and for any reason, as the company's exclusive private property and as one of its rights, without the company's having any obligation to pay me any sum in respect of this.
4. I declare and undertake, in the event of my violating this undertaking, in letter or in spirit, I am under obligation to pay to the company, in damages as agreed upon beforehand, six months salary, and I consider myself completely responsible towards the company in the case of my breaching this undertaking.

Signature: _____

APPENDIX 6

Research supervisor's supportive letter



GLASGOW BUSINESS SCHOOL

Glasgow Business School, Department of Management Studies, University of Glasgow,
53-59 Southpark Avenue, Glasgow, G12 8LF, Scotland. U.K. Tel: 041-339 8855, Telex: 777070 UNIGLA

16th March, 1988.

Direct line: 041 330 5410

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sirs

Mr. Samir Abuznaid

This letter introduces Mr. Samir Abuznaid. Mr. Abuznaid is studying for the Degree of Ph.D. at the University of Glasgow, under my supervision.

He is undertaking research on aspects of management attitudes, beliefs, and business culture in the West Bank.

As part of his research he will be studying documents, consulting libraries, and undertaking an interview study using a questionnaire.

Mr. Abuznaid is a bona fide researcher duly registered for a degree of the University of Glasgow. I hope therefore that you will give him every assistance in his studies and research.

Yours faithfully,